GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MADHYA PRADESH

SAGAR

MADHYA PRADESH DISTRICT GAZETTEERS

SAGAR

By

V. S. KRISHNAN

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PREFACE

The Sagar District Gazetteer was completed in the year 1961-62. Shri V. S. Krishnan, M. A. (Oxon), was then the State Editor. The Gazetteer was approved by the State Advisory Board, consisting of the following members:—

1. Pandit D. P. Mishra, Vice-Chancellor, University of Saugar.
2. Pandit Surya Narayan Vyas, Ujjain.
3. Dr. Raghubir Sinh, M. P., Sitamau.
4. Prof. W. D. West, Head of the Department of Geology, University of Saugar.
5. Dr. Muzaffar Ali, Professor of Geography, University of Saugar.
6. Dr. D S. Shrivastava, Professor of Zoology, University of Saugar.
7. Shri L. C. Dhariwal, Retired Professor of Economics Holkar College, Indore.
8. Dr. S L Katare, Principal, Government College
9. Dr. R. M. Sinha, Professor of History, Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya, Jabalpur.
10. Shri V. K. Thapar, Superintendent, Archaeological Department, Bhopal
11. Dr. M. G. Dikshit, Deputy Director of Archaeology, M. P.
12. The Director of Land Records, Madhya Pradesh
13. The Director of Agriculture, Madhya Pradesh.
14. The Chief Conservator of Forests, Madhya Pradesh.
15. The Director of Economics asd Statistics, Madhya Pradesh.
16. Dr. H. V. Trivedi, Retired Deputy Director of Archaeology, Madhya Pradesh.
17. Shri Harihar Niwas Dwivedi, Gwalior.
18. Shri G. R. Garde, Retired Revenue Secretary, Madhya Bharat Government, Gwalior.
19. Shri K. B. L. Bhargava, Officer on Special Duty.
20. Shri V. S. Krishnan, State Editor, Revision of District Gazetteers, (Convener)

The Sagar Gazetteer was sent to the Government Press in two instalments in 1963. As the final figures of the 1961 Census were then not available, the data pertained to 1951 Census. Subsequently, owing to certain technical flaw in the format, printing work had to be suspended. After incorporating as far as practicable the new and readily available data of 1961 Census, the Gazetteer was sent back to the Press.

The present State Editor feels apologetic for the inordinate delay in the publication of the Sagar Gazetteer. Without apportioning blame in any quarters, he can only mention that the circumstances were beyond the control of authorities concerned.

The Sagar District Gazetteer is second in the series. After passing through a period of initial difficulties, work is now going on apace. The Jabalpur Gazetteer draft is complete and sent to the Gazetteers Unit, Government of India for approval. The work on East-Nimar, Narsimhapur, Indore and West-Nimar is at various advanced stages of preparation.

The State Government have decided to publish District Gazetteers, both in English and Hindi versions. Gwalior and Sagar Hindi Gazetteers are under preparation and will soon be published.

The State Editor feels grateful to the Gazetteers Unit, Government of India, for their active interest and guidance. He is grateful to Prof. K. D. Bajpai, Head of the Department of Ancient Indian History and Culture University of Saugar, who very kindly provided eight blocks and photographs pertaining to Eran, Rock Paintings, etc. and also to Principal, Police Training College, Sagar, for supplying photographs of the Fort. Mention must be made here of the invaluable help and guidance given by Prof. Muzaffar Ali, Head of the Department of Geography, University of Saugar, in the scheme of Maps, which were prepared in the Gazetteers Department itself.

The State Editor is thankful to the following Gazetted Staff, associated with the preparation of Sagar Gazetteer, for their

devoted work :—

Editors—Shri Shuk Deo Dube, Shri L. C. Goswami and Shri S. D. Guru.

Compilers—Shri R. K. Shrivastava, Shri B. Bagchi, Shri B. K. Bajhal, Shri M. L. Tiwari, Shri M. P. Dube, Shri K. Parmar, Shri K. A. S. Bais, Shri P. K. Bhatnagar, Shri M. M. Muley, Shri Vishnu Saran, Shri R. N. Sharma, Shri R. K. Lal and Shri S. S. Dasondhi.

The State Editor wishes here to express appreciation of the work done at various levels by the whole staff of the Gazetteers Unit. Shri R. K. Shrivastava is the supervising officer for the printing of the Gazetteer, whereas Shri T. S. Sarma is in charge of the index. Shri R. N. Mahobiya, Superintendent, and the office staff worked with zeal during the preparation of the Sagar Gazetteer.

The State Editor gratefully places on record how he—a neophyte—has found inspiration from the pioneer-work done by Prof. V. S. Krishnan.

BHOPAL : P. N. SHRIVASTAV,
1st July 1965. *State Editor.*

Two richly ornamented female figures with attendants, Rehli Temple (11th Century).

CHAPTER I

GENERAL

INTRODUCTION

The district of Sagar lying in the north-central region of Madhya Pradesh forms a part of the Jabalpur revenue division. It was spelled as Saugor or Saugar during the British period. Situated between 23° 10′ and 24° 27′ north latitude and between 78° 4′ and 79° 21′ east longitude, the district has a truly central location in the country. The Tropic of Cancer passes through the southern part of the district.

The origin of the name.—The district derives its name from the Hindi word *Sagar* meaning lake or sea, apparently because of the large and once beautiful lake, about one square mile in area, around which the town of Sagar has been built.

General Boundaries.—The district is bounded on the north by Jhansi district of Uttar Pradesh, on the south by the districts of Narsimhapur and Raisen, on the west by the district of Vidisha, and on the east by the district of Damoh, which previously formed part of Sagar district. On the north-east and north-west, the district adjoins Chhatarpur and Guna districts, respectively.

The district is accessible by rail, as the town of Sagar lies on the Bina-Katni branch line of the Central Railway. Sagar is 47 miles (75.64 kms.) from Bina which is on the Bombay-Delhi main line. The district is traversed by first class roads which connect it with important towns like Damoh and Jabalpur on the east and South-east, respectively, Lalitpur and Jhansi on the north, Chhatarpur on the north-east and Bhopal on the south-west.

Area and Population.—Sagar district is the sixteenth largest district in size in the State, and the third largest in the Jabalpur revenue division. The district is divided into four tahsils, viz, Sagar, Banda, Khurai and Rehli, each in the charge of a Tahsildar or a Sub-Divisional Officer.

According to the Surveyor-General of India, the district has a total area of 3,961 square miles (6,374.6 sq. kms.) and is shaped roughly like a triangle with its vertex in the south and base in the north. The longest extent of the district is along the south-east to

north-west direction and is about 105 miles (168.98 kms.), while the base of the triangle measures about 75 miles (120.70 kms.). The total population of the district, according to 1961 Census, is 7,96,547.

History of the District.

The history of the town of Sagar dates back to about 1660 A.D., when Udan Shah, a descendant of Nihal Shah, built a small fort on the site of the present one, and founded a village close to it called Parkota which is now part of the town.[1] The present fort and a settlement under its walls was founded by Govind Rao Pandit, an officer of the Peshwa, who held charge of Sagar and the surrounding territory after 1735 A.D., when it came under the Peshwa's possession.

In 1818 A.D., the greater part of the district was ceded by the Peshwa Baji Rao II to the British Government, while different parts of the rest of the present district of Sagar came in the possession of the British at different times between 1818 and 1860. The Dhamoni pargana of Banda tahsil was ceded in 1818 A.D. by Appaji Bhonsla. The Bhera pargana of Banda tahsil was acquired by transfer from the Bundelkhand States in 1818 A. D. The Parganas, Rahatgarh in Sagar tahsil and Garhakota, Deori, Gourjhamar and Naharmow in Rehli tahsil collectively known as Punch Mahal were originally made over to the British by Sindhia at different dates from 1820 to 1825 for management.[2] The Shahgarh pargana of Banda tahsil was confiscated in 1857 in consequence of the rebellion of the chief. The Kanjia pargana of Khurai tahsil was acquired from Sindhia by a treaty in 1860 A.D. A small area in the north-east corner of the tahsil around the village of Hirapur was similarly transferred to the British from the Charkhari State to Bundelkhand and added to the district after the uprising of 1857.

Administratively, the position of Sagar and the neighbouring territories underwent frequent changes. The Saugor territory was, first of all, placed under the Superintendent of Political Affairs of Bundelkhand. Later, in 1820, this area, called the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, was placed under the administration of an Agent to the Governor-General. When the North-Western Province was constituted in 1835, the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories were included in this province. In 1842 occurred the Bundela rising, the quelling of which demanded a more direct attention by the Governor-General. But order was restored in the following year, and the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories were again placed under the political control of an Agent to the Governor-General. The arrangement, however, was not found to be satisfactory and these territories

1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugar District, 1906, p. 25.

were once again restored to the North-Western Provinces in 1853. Thereafter in 1861 the Saugor and Nerbudda territories, along with the Nagpur State formed a Commissioner's Province called the Central Provinces.

Sagar, which was the headquarters of the Sagar Commissionership for a short period, ceased to be so in 1863-64, when this district was incorporated with Jabalpur Commissionership. In the year 1932 the district of Damoh was added to Sagar district and was administered as Sub-Division. In 1956, however, Damoh Sub-Division was again separated from the district to form a separate district, and Sagar district consisted of its present four tahsils, viz., Sagar, Khurai, Rehli and Banda.

TOPOGRAPHY

The present relief of the district may be explained in terms of the underlying structure and the processes of erosion. The district lies at the south-eastern edge of the great Malwa plateau which widens to the north and north-west. It lies to the north of the Narmada river and is actually separated from its valley by a steep escarpment towards the south. The area is mostly capped by the Deccan-Trap lava, while in places Vindhyan sandstone also crops out, notably near and within Sagar town.

Elevation.—The average level of the district is about 1,500—1,750 feet (457·2-533·4 metres) above mean sea level but elevations range from 1,160 feet (353.56 metres) in the extreme north (Dhasan river-bed) to 2,242 feet (683.36 metres) in the south-west (Naharmou peak). The relief of the district is best understood in terms of the physical divisions which are represented by the basins of the various rivers, all of which run in a nearly south north or south-west to north-east direction. Probably the best defined division is the Khurai tahsil itself in the north-west, which is almost a level tract and forms the main wheat-producing area in the district. This low land, with an elevation of about 1,350—1,400 feet (411 5—426 7 metres) above mean sea level, is drained towards the north-west by the Jhimpa, Parasari and Bina rivers, all tributaries of the river Betwa. The Khurai plain is fairly separated from the rest of the district by a series of steeply rising hills, all mostly wooded, and running north-east to south-west (from Pithoria to Rahatgarh). These hills, all over 1,750 feet (533 40 metres) above mean sea level, also act as the water-shed between the tributary rills of the Bina and Jhimpa rivers on the one hand and the Dhasan on the other. The maximum eleva-

tion in this range is Tora peak (2,108 feet or 642.51 metres). Nestling amongst these hills is the large village of Rahatgarh, washed by the waters of the river Bina.

To the east and south-east of this range of hills, the dominant features of the physiography of the district are the five parallel valleys of Dhasan, Bewas, Sonar, Kopra and Bamner. The valleys tapering to the south-west and expanding north-eastward, form rich agricultural tracts and contain all the important settlements (excluding Sagar), for example, Naryaoli in the Dhasan basin, Banda in the Bewas basin and Rehli and Garhakota in the Sonar basin. These valleys are also generally dotted over with numerous villages. The elevation of these valley-plains is a little over 1,500 feet (457.20 metres) and decreases to the north-east.

Hills

Separating the basins of the above-mentioned rivers are ranges of hills rising 300—500 feet (91 11—152.40 metres) above general level of the country the one most distinct being the range extending south-west from Lidhora through Banda and Sagar to Jaisinghnagar. These hills, with flat summits, are mostly wooded and frequently attain heights about 2,000 feet (609.60 metres). One of them, quite close to Sagar, is Patharia which is 2,035 feet (620.26 metres) above mean sea level. Tendu dabar, further to the south west is still higher, being 2,182 feet (665 07 metres)

The Bewas and Sonar basins are separated by a range of steeply rising hills which do not, however, continue for more than about 16 miles (within the district). Naharmou (2.242 feet or 683.4 metres) the highest point in the whole district is located within this range. Lastly, a small group of hills rising to a maximum of 2,167 feet (660 50 metres) at Silanda separates the tributaries of the upper Sonar and Bamner rivers.

Drainage Patterns.—The drainage of the district is directed towards the north and north-east. The five big rivers of the district, *viz.*, the Bina, the Dhasan, the Bewas, the Sonar and the Bamner are all perennial rivers. They form the main streams which are joined by a number of small tributaries, most of which are only wet-weather rills coming down the intervening ridges and joining the main streams at an acute angle This gives a typical dendritic character to the drainage system of the district.

Apart from this certain local features of drainage may be noted here. For example, there are few instances of a radial type of drainage. Wherever there are points of relatively high elevation from where the ground slopes down in all directions there is a tendency for water to flow downwards from such points and branch out in different directions. Good examples of this may be seen near Sagar town itself and also near the village Khimlasa in the Khurai tahsil. Yet another example may be seen in the large village of Jaisinghnagar also known as Jaisinagar.

It is obvious that during the long time spared to the agencies of erosion since the spread of the Deccan lavas, the various rills of the main streams must have steadily cut back into the water-divides. It is for this reason that one finds narrow steeply sloping water partings between the above-mentioned five main streams of the district With further passage of time, the ridges might recede further towards the local summits.

Origin of the Drainage Pattern.—Professor W. D. West of Saugar University, who has been carrying out a study of the geomorphology of the neighbourhood of Sagar, considers the following three phases to be involved in the origin of the drainage pattern:—

(i) The formation of the original pre-Deccan Trap drainage, developed on the Vidhyans, which must have been blotted out at the time of the Deccan Trap volcanic eruptions;

(ii) the development of a new drainage on the top of the Trap at the close of the eruptions; and

(iii) a tendency for this new drainage to revert to the earlier pattern as the old Vindhyan topography became exposed by the denudation of the overlying trap.

RIVER SYSTEM

It is noteworthy that although the river Narmada flows within six miles of southernmost boundary of the district, most of the area is really a part of the catchment area of the Ganges. The district in fact slopes to the north and north-east and is drained by the Gangetic streams The main rivers from west to east are, in order, the Bina, Dhasan, Bewas, Sonar and Bamner rivers.

The Bina takes its source several miles to the south of the district and enters it near the village Mhuna After flowing through Rahatgarh, where the river is crossed by the road coming from

Sagar, the river turns to the north-east and forms, in places, the boundary between the Sagar and Vidisha (Bhilsa) districts. Above Rahatgarh village the river tumbles down a fall of 50 feet (15.24 metres). The waterfall, locally famous for its scenic beauty and as a picnic spot, is explained as due to the under cutting of softer sandstone beds lying beneath harder ones. About 10 miles to the west of Bina-Etawa, the river joins the Betwa. The Betwa itself does not flow through Sagar but only forms the boundary between Sagar and Guna districts.

The Dhasan takes its source just to the south of the district and flows first to the south and then to the north-east, past Naryaoli, a railway station between Sagar and Bina. For a considerable distance in the north, it forms the boundary between the Sagar and Jhansi districts.

Further to the south-east are the rivers Bewas. Sonar, Kopra and Bamner. The Kopra and Bewas are really tributaries of the Sonar. Several miles beyond the district to the north-east, the Sonar and Bamner meet and join the Ken which is a major tributary of the Jamna. The Bewas river serves as a feeder to the waterworks constructed on the Patharia Hills at Sagar.

Lakes and Tanks

The Sagar Lake.—Mention must here be made of the Sagar Lake which has given the name to the district headquarters The town is built on the western, northern and eastern sides of the Lake. The Sagar Fort is also located on the shore of this Lake. Apart from its influence on the location and build-up of the town, the Lake is of great importance in the urban activities of the population. The local people use it for washing and bathing, and it also serves as a means of recreation, such as boating.

As regards the origin of Sagar Lake, Professor W. D. West suggests the theory that it came into existence when the Vindhyan outcrops that partly surround it became exposed as the overlying Trap was removed, the more resistant Vindhyan quartzites damming up the south to north drainage. The present drainage to the west is held up by a small bund.

The main sources of water supply are wells. The compact Vindhyan formations and Trap rocks have little water-bearing capacity. There is acute shortage of water during summer months It is reported that open wells vary in depth between 8-20 feet (2.43—6.09 metres). Only two wells were reported to be 56 and 83 feet

(17.07 and 15.29 metres) deep, respectively. The yield from these wells was expected to be about 30 thousand gallons (1,36,305 litres) per day if mechanical bailing methods are employed. Tube-well sinking has not been recommended.

The ground water conditions west and south of Sagar (areas falling in topo sheets 55 1/5, 1/6, 1/9, 1/10 and 1/14) were also studied by the Geological Survey of India during the years 1957-59. The geological formations met with in the area are the Deccan Traps of Upper Cretaceous overlying Vindhyans. In the Alluvial country east of Patharia-Garhakota road wells yield large quantities of water, whereas wells in the hard rock areas are reported to go dry in summer. Occasionally fissured limestones act as good acquifers.

GEOLOGY

A geological survey of the district was first undertaken by W. L. Willson, assisted by Kishen Singh beginning in 1867. Unfortunately Willson published no account of his work, though his original maps are to be seen in the office of the Geological Survey of India in Calcutta. Prior to this Dr. Spray, the Civil Surgeon at Sagar, had discovered some fossil shells and petrified palms in an inter-trappean bed cropping out in a small nullah crossing the Sagar Cantonment on the old University road. He gave an account of his discovery in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, and named one of the fossil gastropods *Physa Prinsepii* after the then Secretary of the Asiatic Society.[1]

Subsequently, in 1871, F R. Mallet published a memoir entitled "On the Vindhyan series, as exhibited in the North-Western and Central Provinces of India." Though not much information is given about the geology of the Sagar district. the accompanying, small-scale map in that memoir shows the distribution of the main rock formations in the district.[2]

Thereafter there is no record of any geological work having been done in this district. But recently the Geological Survey of India have taken up the re-survey of the district on modern lines and the University of Saugar is also engaged in investigating the geology of the country around Sagar.

1. Journal of the Asiatic Society, Bengal II, pp. 659, 1898.
2. Memoirs, Geological Survey of India, VII, 1871.

The greater part of the district is situated on the rocks of the Vindhyan system and the Deccan Trap volcanic series, the latter covering about two-thirds of the district. In the extreme north-east corner of the district, around Shahgarh and Hirapur, there occurs the very ancient Bundelkhand granite, and rocks of the Bijawar series, while to the east and south-east of Sagar a development of the Lameta series fringes and underlies the Deccan Trap over a distance of about 35 miles (56.33 kms.).

The Archaeans are the oldest rocks in the district. These are succeeded by the Bijawars which rest with non-conformity on the Archaeaons. Overlying the Bijawars unconfirmably are the Vindhyan. There are two divisions in the Vidhyans, the Lower Vindhyans and the Upper Vindhyans. The Semri series constituting the Lower Vindhyans comprises only sandstones and shales in this district. The Upper Vindhyans (Kaimur series, Rewah series and Bhander series) consist largely of sandstones forming extensive plateaus and scarps.

The Vindhyan sandstones and shales show ripple marks, current-bedding and other characters pointing to shallow-water and sub-aerial deposition. After the deposition of the Vindhyans in pre-Cambrian or early Palaeozoic times there was a long hiatus in the Stratigraphical history of the district, the next younger formation being the Lameta beds of Cretaceous age. These are fluviatile of esturaine deposits occurring immediately below the Deccan Trap and cropping out as narrow fringes around the Trap country. Lameta beds consist chiefly of cherty limestones subordinate sand-stones and clays and are not usually more than 100 feet (30·48 metres) thick, the Deccan Trap comprises 10 or more flows of basaltic lava, with an average thickness of about 50 feet (15-24 metres). They were poured out in enormous quantities through fissures during Cretaceous and Eocene times. These flows spread over vast areas in the western, central and southern parts of India as nearly horizontal sheets, the earliest flows filling up the irregularities of the existing topography.

During the long intervals of time which elapsed between successive eruptions, there came into existence some rivers and lakes. The fluviatile and locustrine deposits formed in them are found intercalated between the lava flows and are known as Inter-trappean beds, comprising mainly limestones which are commonly silicified, to chert.

The Traps on weathering have given rise to black cotton soil (rich in plant nutrients such as lime, magnesia, iron and alkalies) or laterite.

The recent river alluvia conceal the older rock formations mainly in the eastern part of the district.

The rock formations that constitute the Sagar district, are shown in the following Table with the oldest formation at the bottom

Recent		Alluvium and Laterite
Lower Eocene & Upper Cretaceous		Deccan Trap and Intertrappean beds.
Middle Cretaceous		Lameta beds.
	Unconformity	
Bhander series		Upper Bhander sandstones Sirbu shales Lower Bhander sandstones Bhander limestone Ganurgarh shales
Upper Vindhyan:		
	Rewah series	Upper Rewah sandstones Lower Rewah shales.
	Kaimur series	Kaimur sandstones Kaimur conglomerate.
	Unconformity	
Lower Vindhyan:		
	Semri series	Porcellanite shales Semri sandstones Dulchipore conglomerate
	Unconformity	
Cuddapah		
	Bijawar series	White quartzite Red shales Siliceous limestone
	Non-conformity	
Archaean		Quartz veins and basic dyke Bundelkhand granite Talcose chloritic and hornblende schists

Archaean.—The schistose rocks consisting of talcose chloritic and hornblende schists are highly folded and show steep dips. They have a general east-west trend. The Bundelkhand granite is the most prominent formation and it is found forming dome-like masses, tors and mounds. It is mostly a pinkish, medium-grained granite, though at places it shows some gneissic foliation. It consists of microcline, acid plagioclase quartz, biotites hornblende and some muscovite, Magnetite, sphene and apatite as accessory minerals in the granite.

The Bundelkhand granite and the schists are traversed by a large number of quartz veins and basic dykes. The quartz veins commonly run in a north-east to south-west direction. The basic intrusives consist of amphibilities and hornblende schists and have east-west trends.

Cuddapah.—The Archaeans are succeeded by the Cuddapahs which are represented here by the Bijawars[1] consisting of quartzites, limestones and red shales. The quartzites are thick-bedded, massive and white. They generally show gentle southerly dips and overlie the Bundelkhand granite with a non-conformity. Near the granite they are thin-bedded. The limestones are impure and bluish-grey in colour. They show rolling dips and are silicified to various degrees. Towards the top they are highly silicified and pass into a compact breccia. Associated with the limestones are red shales and hornstone. Some of the shales contain ferruginous nodules rich in haematite which were formerly worked for the extraction of iron by local smelters.

Lower Vindhyans.—The Lower Vindhyans are represented here by the Semri series which consists of the Dulchipore conglomerate sandstones and porcellanite beds The Dulchipore conglomerate rests unconformably over the Bijawar quartzites. The conglomerate is composed of fragments of white veinquartz and quartzite embeded in a siliceous matrix The Semri sandstones are coarse grained. gritty, and thinly laminated. They show current bedding prominently. The sandstones are white to pinkish in colour and at places contain intercalation of shale The porcellanite beds consist of silicified shales which are generally black or Khaki-green in colour. The beds are either horizontal or gently dipping.

Upper Vindhyans.— The Upper Vindhyans consist of the Kaimur series, the Rewah series and the Bhander series.

1. The age of Bijawar rocks is uncertain, they may be either Archaean or Cuddapah.

The Kaimur series is found in the northern part of the district and consists of conglomerate at the base and sandstone at the top. The Kaimur conglomerate marks the unconformable junction between the Lower and Upper Vindhyans. It consists of pebbels of banded jasper, grey and white-cherts. The Kaimur sandstone is generally pinkish in colour, compact, massive, fine-grained and quartzitic. The beds are horizontal or gently dipping.

The Rewah series consists of the Upper Rewa sandstones and the Lower Rewah shales. The Rewah series is exposed around the north of Sagar and in the eastern part of the district. The Upper Rewah sandstone is the prevalent formation of this series. It is a fine-grained, hard, compact, quartzite, vitreous sandstone, and in colour reddish-brown, white, red, pinkish and grey. It is generally massive, though flaggy and thinly laminated varieties are present at places. Ferruginous varieties are also present containing ferruginous (haematitic) nodules. The beds are horizontal or show gentle and rolling dips. Current bedding and ripple marks are often found in these sandstones

The Lower Rewah shales are splintery, and in colour they are red, pinkish-yellow, brown or white. Below the shales at places there is a jasperoidal conglomerate, with pebbles of banded jasper and chert in a silicious, gritty, and somewhat ferruginous matrix.

The Bhander series consists of the Upper Bhander sandstone and Sirbu shales, the Lower Bhander sandstone, the Bhander limestone, and the Ganurgarh shale. The Bhander series is mainly exposed in the south-eastern part of the district, though there are a few exposures in the northern and eastern parts of the district. The Ganurgarh shales are brick-red in colour, and are calcareous with stringers of calcite. They are often ferruginous and show gentle-dips.

The Bhander limestone is hard massive and bluish-grey. Dark-grey, pinkish, and cream coloured varieties are also met with. The limestone is of variable quality. It is pure or silicious or magnesian. The limestone is inter-calated with thin-beded sand stones, shales and quartzites. The beds are horizontal or gently dipping. The Lower Bhander sandstone is thin-bedded, fine to medium-grained, brownish and reddish-brown in colour with whitish, or brown spots. At places it is massive. The Sirbu shales are thinly laminated and Khaki coloured. Sometimes they are reddish ferruginous and silicified, and grade into sandstone. They contain inter-calations of brownish sandstone which shows ripple marks

They are horizontal or gentle dipping. The Upper Bhander sandstone is fine to medium-grained and reddish brown in colour. It also shows ripple marks.

Lameta Beds.—The Lameta Beds consist of conglomerates, conglomeratic limestone, cherts and quartzitic sandstones. Fossils are only rarely found.

Deccan Trap.—The Deccan Trap constitutes the major part of the district. It consists of ten or more horizontal flows of light-grey and dark grey basalt, composed chiefly of augite, intermediate plagioclase felspar, magnetite, ilmenite, and glassy material, which is partly chlorophaeite. Fresh olivine is rather rare. It is fine to coarse-grained, and shows columnjointing at places. The Traps wither with spheroidal exfoliations which frequently give rise to large rounded boulders of the out-crops. Glassy vesicular, scoriaceous and amygdaloidal varieties are also met. The amygdales are filled with agate, chalcedony, quartz, calcite and zeilites, the commonest of the latter being stibite, chabazite, apophyllite and heulandite. There are no dykes in the district, and the source of the flows is uncertain, though they probably came from the south Some of the flows can be traced for more than 60 miles (96.56 Kms.) and they show no signs of thinning out

Inter-trappean Beds.—These are found between the flows largely near Sagar, and consist of pure and siliceous limestones, cherts and clays. In places, especially in the chert, they contain fossil shells, the commonest being species of *Physa* (Bulinus) *Paludina, Turritella* and *Lymnaea*, while fossil wood, mostly of palms is also found.

Alluvium and Laterite.—Alluvium is found mainly in the eastern fringes of the district, concealing various older rocks. It also occurs in the big river valleys in other parts of the district. Laterite is found capping the Deccan Trap and the Vindhyan sandstones and shales which are ferruginous But it is chiefly met within the trappean terrain, on the summits of hills above 1900 feet (579·12 metres). The most prominent out crop forms the summit of Tinsmal, 25 miles (40.23 kms.) from Sagar along the Shahgarh road. It is generally ferruginous and is dark-red or brownish-red in colour It shows pisolitic and vermicular structure. At places it is aluminous (bauxitic) when it is light coloured. Some of the ferruginous laterites were formerly smelted for iron on a small-scale.

The present drainage provides an interesting example of superimposed drainage. The original pre-Deccan Trap topography.

carved out of the Vindhyans, was obliterated when it was covered by the out-pourings of the Deccan Trap lavas. A drainage developed on the lavas, and as the latter were denuded away, the new drainage became superimposed on the old Vindhyan topography, to which it seems, in places, to be trying to adopt itself The vindhyan rocks, being harder than the vesicular basalt flows, have resisted erosion better than the Traps, with the result that the Vindhyans, though older, tend to stand up as ridges above the younger Deccan Trap.

Mineral Wealth

The district is not endowed with much mineral wealth. It has however, got abundant construction materials and several small occurrences of limestones which are used in the manufacture of lime. The Vindhyan sandstones are quarried for building purposes and at Atta. north of Malthone sandstones are split into plank-like sheets. The Traps, where fresh and free from vesicules, are worked for building-stone, road metal and railway ballast. Though some of the ferruginous laterite and some iron ore in the Bijawar series of the Banda tahsil to the south and south-west of Hirapur. have for long been smelted for iron locally, they are neither rich enough, nor are they found in large enough quantities to support a modern iron industry.

Earthquakes

Sagar district is situated in the more stable earthquake-free part of India. Only earthquakes originating in the main earthquake-belt, fronting the Himalayas, are likely to be felt in the district, and even those would be felt only feebly.

FLORA OR BOTANY

The forests are now restricted to the hilly areas generally not suitable for permanent cultivation. In 1958-59, as per records of the Divisional Forest Officer, the total area covered by the Government forests is 1158 sq. miles (2,999.19 sq. kms). Of this forest land 740 sq miles (1,916·58 sq· kms·) constituted the 'Reserved', 322 sq· miles (833·97sq kms) the 'Protected' and the remaining 96 sq miles (248·64 sq· kms.) 'Unclassed' forests. Although the forests cover almost an ideal proportion of the total land surface in the district, 'Reserved' forests under scientific management form only a part of it.

The 'Reserved' forests are demarcated on the ground and were declared 'Reserved' in the year 1879. On abolition of proprietary

rights and promulgation of the new land tenure in 1951, the village forests formerly owned by the malguzars, were taken over by the State Government and the 'Big tree' forests were handed over to the Forest Department for management and declared as 'Protected' forests in 1958. The so-called 'Chhotaghas' areas still remain with the Revenue Department as 'Unclassed' forests. The 'Reserved' forests consist of 131 block of varying extent. Most of the forest areas are situated on the hills between the rivers Dhasan, Bewas and Sonar which run in the north-east direction almost parallel to each other. The 'Haveli' tract in the Khuri tahsil has little forest

Forest Types.—The forests of Sagar district belong to the 'Northern Tropical Dry Deciduous' type according to Champion's[1] classification since the average annual rainfall in the district is between 40 to 50 inches (1,015·99 mms. to 1269·99 mms.). Within the broad-based main type, considerable variations occur due to geographical, geological and other factors, the most important of which are grazing and fires.

A large portion of the district is covered with Deccan Trap. On the Trap the climax vegetation under the existing climatic, edaphic and biotic factors is nearly a pure teak forest. The sandstones give rise to sandy-loams which support a mixed forest, the denuded areas having a xerophytic type of vegetation.

The other rock formations bear varying types of forests and many variations are seen over a small distance. The soil, as may be expected, presents an endless variety, from black cotton soil or heavy clays to dry sands and boulder beds. Broadly speaking the hilly region and the sub-montane area is, for the most part, a poor, dry and shallow-loam, the degree of denudation being the main decisive factor.

Alluvium derived from rocks on higher elevation is deposited on the banks of large water course down below. The disintegration of Trap gives rise, generally to yellowish-loam strewn with Trap boulders. On lower ground the soil accumulates and gives rise to deep, black clay. Lateritisation on the top of Trap hills is common, resulting in impoverishment of the silica content, leaching of bases and accumulation of iron and aluminium sesquiosides which impart to it a striking yellow or red colour. It is not generally very deep and is deficient in organic matter, probably due to quick decomposition under the stress of temperature and moisture.

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1 H. G. Champion, Forest—types of India.

Fires have tended to produce a retrogression to a drier type of vegetation and have increased the proportion of fire resistant species. Sagar district has a very large cattle population. Uncontrolled and excessive grazing which is usually confined to the more accessible localities has a similar adverse effect on the crop, particularly on the reproduction of trees.

Sub-types.—Although the local variations gradually merge into one another and are found inter-mingled over relatively small areas, the following local sub-types are distinguished:—

A. *Teak Forests*—

(a) On the Trap covered hills

(b) On alluvium along water courses.

B. *Mixed Forests*—

(a) On sandstones.

(b) In moist valleys

(c) On heavy soils.

Teak Forests.—Teak (*Sagwan*) occurs as a predominent species on the Trap hills, mostly in the Rehli and Sagar tahsils, its occurrence being more on the flat tops, than on the slopes. Where denudation of the trap on the top has gone up, teak is seen descending all the way down the hill and establishing itself on the alluvium along large water-courses in the plains. The descent of teak can be traced by the older trees and larger proportion of teak on the top to the younger and fewer trees on the lower slopes. On the hill tops teak trees are mostly of coppice origin. At some places, specially near Jaisinagar and Jalampur, the coppice is in the second or third rotation with the stamps of the parent trees still visible.

Of late, the effect of both grazing and fire has been more visible in the preservation of teak and similar fire-resistant species, *viz.*, *Tendu (Diospyros melanoxylon)*, *seja (Lagerstroemia parviflora)*, *tinsa (Ougeinia Oojeinensis)*, *amla (Emblica officinalis)*, *Dhaora (Anogeissus latifolia)*, *saj (Terminalia tomentosa)*, *etc*. On the slopes of hills the proportion of teak is less and it is associated with other species, *viz.*, *chheola* or *palas (Butea monosperma)*, *moyen* or *mowai (Lannea coromandelica)*, *gunja*, *salai* or *saleh (Boswellia serrata)*, *bel (Aegle marmelos)*, *reunjha* or *hiwar (Acacia leucophloea)*, *barga (kydia calycine)*, *papra (Gardenia latifolia)*, *dhaman (Grewia tiliaefolia)*, *Khair (Acacia catechu)*, *bhirra (Chloroxylon*

swietenia), *mokha* (*Nathusia swietenioides*), *ghont* (*Zizyphus xylophyra*), *mahua* (*Madhuca indica*), etc. On eroded ground where boulders are exposed, *ghont* (*Zizyphus Xylophyra*), *thua* (*Euphorbia tirucalli*) *reunjha or hiwar*, (*Acacia leucophloea*), *lokhandi* (*Ixora arborea*), *Khair* (*Acacia catechu*), *ber* (*Ziziphus mauritiana*), *bhirra* (*Chloroxylon swietenia*), *gongal* (*Cochlos-permum religiosum*), *karua* (*Erythrina variegata*), *kanker* (*Flacourtia indica*), *bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), etc., are seen *Kusum* (*Schleichera oleosa*) trees occur on nullah banks. This tree is the first to flush in summer when the entire forest is leafless. On plain ground where grazing is heavy and fires occur annually, stands are open and natural regeneration is confined to coppice growth, while the slopes have a good crop of seedling origin with a lesser proportion of teak The mature teak trees reach a height of 40 to 60 feet (12.19 metres to 18 metres) and a girth of 3 to 5 feet (0·91 to 1.52 metres) depending on the depth of the soil and its fertility Larger trees exhibit unsoundness at the base Bamboos (*Dendrocalamus strictus*) occur in moist sheltered valleys.

The teak forests on the alluvium along the more important rivers, *viz.*, the Dhasan, the Bewas, the Bairma and the Sonar, and large nullahs constitute some of the best forests of the district. On the banks of the Sonar this extends to a width of three miles on either side. Here teak reaches to a height of 90 feet (27.43 metres) and a girth of 7 feet (2.13 metres). The forest is dense and often two storeys (canopies) can be distinguished: the big trees forming the top of first story and the smaller, the second.

The tree species of timber value occurring in the over-wood with teak are *Sal* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *bija* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*), *kalam* (*Mitragyna parvifolia*), *chirol* (*Holoptelea integrifolio*), *and dhaora* (*Anogeissus, latifolia*), *Semal* (*Salmalia malabarica*) *trees* which have become important due to their use as match-wood are few. Large trees, *viz*, *Kekad* (*Garuga pinnata*), *moyen* or *maua* (*Lannea coromandelica*), *phansi* or *dhobin* (*Dalbergia paniculata*), *gumar* or *kumbhi*, (*Careya arborea*), *behra* (*Terminalia belerica*), *mahua* (*Madhuca indica*), *lendia* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *chichwa* (*Albizzia odoratissima*), and *karmata* or *Kalla* (*Dillenia pentagyny*) also occur mixed with teak. *Domsal* (*Miliusa velutina*) occurs especially in the Ramna reserve. In the second storey species, *viz*, *achar* (*Buchanania lanzan*), *amla* (*Emblica officinalis*), *barga* (*Kydia calycina*), *dhaman* (*Grewia tiliaefolia*), *kari* (*Miliusa yetufina*), *jamrasi* (*Elaeodendron glaucum*), *papra* (*Gardenia latifolia*), *bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), *asta* (*Bauhinia*)

recemosa), *lokhandi* (*Ixora arborea*) and *amaltas* (*Cassia fistula*) are most common. Open boggy and frost liable areas are virtually monopolised by *chheola* or *palas* (*Butea monosperma*), and *arjun* or *kohu* (*Terminalia arjun*), the large tree with smooth silvery bark, lines the large nullah banks. A thick bushy growth of *jamun* (*Syzysium cumini*) occurs along the nullah, while the sandy nullah beds and raised ground in the stream beds have *jhau* (*Tamarix troupi*)

Mixed Forests.—Mixed forests occur on the Vindhyan sandstone in the Banda and Khurai tahsils, and over a large part of the Mohli Block in the east of the Rehli tahsil. The quality and density vary according to the depth of the soil and the degree of slope. On deeper soil in the larger forest blocks of the Rehli, and Deori ranges where the amount of rainfall is also higher than other parts of the district, the trees grow upto a height of 60 feet (18.28 metres). The chief species are *saj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *tendu* (*Diospyros melanoxylon*). *seja* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *dhaura* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *amla* (*Emblica officinalis*), *tinsa* (*Ougeinia oojeinensis*), *achar* (*Buchanania lanzan*), *bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), *kari* (*Moliusa tomentosa*), *kasai* (*Bridelia retusa*), *mokha* (*Schrebera swietenioides*), *dhobin* (*Dalbergia paniculata*), *bija* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), *semal* (*Salmalia malabarica*), *salen saleh* or (*Boswellia scerrata*), *reunjha* or *hiwar* (*Acacia leucophoea*), *kem* (*Mitragyna parvifolia*), *barga* (*Kydia calycina*), *bhirra* (*Chloroxylon swietenia*), *khair* (*Acacia catechu*) *bhilma* (*Semecarpus anacardium*), *papra* (*Gardenia latifolia*), *amaltas* (*Cassia fistula*), *arjun* (*Terminalia arjuna*), *Kumbhi* (*Careya arborea*).

Almost pure areas of *Kardhai* (*Anogeissua pendula*) are met with at places such as in the Ramna and Dulchipur reserves. The forest is open with thick undergrowth of weeds. Teak is often met with along the large water courses. Bamboos occur in moist vallyes in the large blocks of forests. All the mixed forests suffer heavily from fires and the smaller blocks are generally over-grazed. On the rocky and eroded ground the growth of trees is poor. The common species occurring here are *seja* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *tinsa* (*Ougeinia Oojeinensis*), *reunjha* (*Acacia leucophloea*), *khair* (*Acacia catechu*), *ghont* (*Zizyphus xylopyra*), *ber* (*Zizyphus mauritiana*) *rohan* (*Soymida ferifuga*), *bhirra* (*Chloroxylon swietenia*), *papra* (*Gardenia latifolia*), *achar* (*Buchanania lanzan*), and *Kanker*, (*Flacourtia indica*).

Kullu (*Sterculia urens*) trees with light-coloured smooth bark large size and scanty crown stand out very prominently in summer, rooted in rock crevices and on steep slopes. The tree is in leaf,

hardly for five months of the rainy season. On less eroded ground an association of *Khair* (*Acacia catechu*) and *ghont* (*Zizyphus xylopyrus*), is met with. *Khair* (*Acacia catechu*) at places forms up to 75 per cent of the crop. Such *Khair* growing areas are found in Khurai, Banda (along the Bila river) and the northern part of the Rehli range. The forests are generally open. Other species occuring are *Khair* (*Acacia catechu*), *seja* (*Legerstroemia parviflora*) *tinsa* (*Ougeinia oojeinensis*), *kanker* (*Flacourtia indica*) *ghont*, (*Zizyphus xylopyrus*), *reunja* (*Acacia leucophoea*), *dhaora* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *kardhai* (*Anogeissus pendula*), etc. In the forest near Dhamoni-erosion has progressed so far as to expose the parent rock. Such areas support xerophytic type of vegetation with preponderance of *harua* (*Erythrina variegata*), *gongal* (*Cochlospermum religiosum*), *thuar* (*Euphorbia tirucalli*), *ber* (*Zizyphus mauritiana*), *rohan* (*Soymida ferifuga*) and *makoi* or *makor* (*Zizyphus oenoplia*).

In moist valleys the proportion of xerophytic species except along the eroded banks of water courses, is less. The forest is denser and the undergrowth scanty. Here good timber trees of *bija* (*Pterocarpus*. *Marsupium*), *shisham* (*Dalbergia latifolia*), *sewan* *Gmelina arborea*), *dhaman* (*Grewia tilliaefolia*), and *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*) are met with. A few trees, viz, *behra* (*Terminalia bellerica*), *chirhol* (*Holoptelea integrifolia*), *erma* or *chichua* (*Albizzia odortassima*), *gumar* or *kumbhi* (*Careya arborea*). and *padar* (*Stereospermum suveilens*) not generally seen in drier localities, are also found here. Climbers are heavy and the forests are less grazed due to steeper slopes. Regeneration of trees species is adequate. Bamboos in the larger blocks form a dense growth in the Banda range.

Chheola or *palas* (*Butea monosperma*), is the main tree growing gregariously on heavy soils. Its branches, in spring, when leafless. are literally covered with bright scarlet flowers with black sepals, rightly called the 'flame of the forest'. This is the principal host of the lac insect in the district. On the peripheral areas on heavy soil *seja* or *lendia* (*Legerstroemia parviflora*), *reunja* (*Acacia leucophloea*), *babul* (*Acacia arabica*) *ber* (*Zizyphus mauritiana*) and *khair* (*Acacia catechu*), appear. *Chheola* (*Butea monosperma*) is also met with on patches of heavy soil on hill tops. The hill slopes at places level up for a short distance forming steps on the slopes. The soil on such areas is generally waterlogged by the sweeping of water from the rocks. *Chheola* is also common in lowlying frosty localities.

Chandan (*Santalum album, linn*) or sandal wood trees are found near Jallandhar, Jaruakhera Amet, Rehli and Ramana but the trees are small and contain little heartwood

The following is the extent of the various types of the forests in areas:--

Type	Good	Poor	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Teak	14,524	1,48,208	1,62,732
Mixed	2,575	2,16,664	2,19,239
Ghont	..	..	5,826
Khair	..	..	9,000
Unworkable open forest	..	..	73,253
Forest villages	..	..	3,425
			4,73,475

In open forests there is always a thick growth of bushes. The common species on the trap covered hills are *bharrati* (*Gymnosporia spinosa*). *banrahar* (*Flemingia semialata*), *jamrasi* (*Elaeodendron glaucum*), *gengurwa* or *gursukri* (*Grewia-hirsuta*, *G. flave scens*), *siharu* or *harsingar* (*Nyctanthes arbortristis*), etc. On moist slopes *indrajata* (*Petalidium barleriodes*) grows thickly, covering large areas. Rocky exposed ground is covered with *dhawai* (*Woodfordia fruticosa*), *chilati* (*Mimosa hamata*), *makoi* or *makor* (*Zizyphus oenoplia*), etc. The under-growth is thicker along water-courses and in sheltered valleys *Karonda* (*Carissa spp.*) form a dense under-growth reaching a height of about five feet on alluvium and eroded banks of nullahs. The smell of its tiny white flowers fills the forest with strong sweet fragrance. Large patches of ground are often covered with this plant which forms an ideal hide-out for the carnivora. Their common species occurring gregariously are *banrahar* (*Flemingia semialata*), *nirgundi* (*Vitex-negundo*) *indrajata* (*Petalidium barlerioides*), *gokhru* (*Xanthium strumarium*), etc. Some of the more important and common weeds are bharrati (*Gymnosporia spinosa*), *aithini* or *marophal* (*Helicteres isora*), *neel* (*Indigofera pulchela*), *indrajau* (*Holarrhena antidysenterica*). *dudhi* (*Wrightia tinctoria*), etc. In the mixed forest the under-growth is heavier and consists mostly of *aithini* or *marophal* (*Helicteres isora*), *banrahar* (*Flemingia semialata*), *chhota-gokhru* (*Acanthospermum hispidum*), *gengurwa* (*Grewia hirsuta*), *dhawai* (*Woodfordia fruticosa*), *siharu* (*Nyctanthes arbortristis*), *neel* (*Indigofera pulchela*), *karonda* (*Carissa opaca*), *jharber* (*Zazyphus nummularia*),

makoi (*Zizyphus oenoplia*), *chilati* (*Mimosa hamata*), *bankapas* (*Thespesia lampas*), etc. On eroded ground *dhawai* (*Woodfordia fruticosa*), *makoi* or *makor* (*Zizyphus oenoplia*), *chilati* (*Mimosa hamata*), *jharber* (*Zizyphus nummularia*), *dikamali* (*Gardenia resinifera*), and *ar* (*Mimosa rubicaulis*) are most commonly met with. *Raimunia* (*Lantana camara*) is seen growing on the edge of the forests in some blocks of Khurai tahsil.

Avenue Trees.—The species commonly met with on road side avenues are *reunjha*, (*Acacia leucophloea*) on the Sagar-Banda road, *kohu* (*Terminalia arjuna*) on the Sagar-Rehli road, *karanji* (*Pongamia pinnata*) on the Sagar-Rahatgarh road, *shisham* (*Dalbergia sissoo*), and *babul* (*Acacia arabica*) on the Sagar-Narsimhapur road, *neem* (*Azadirachta indica*), *kachnar* (*Bauhinia variegata*), *akasnim* (*Millingtonia hertensia*), *maharukh* (*Ailanthus excelsa*), *katang*, or bamboo (*Bambusa bambos*), and *bamboo* on the Jhansi road, and *bargad* (*Ficusbengalensis*), *gular* (*Ficus glomerata*), *jamun* (*Syzysium cumini*), and *am* (*Mangifera indica*), on other roads. Along with these planted trees, naturally occurring species, *viz*., *chheola* or *palas* (*Butea monosperma*), *mahua* (*Madhuca latifolia*), *seja* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *ber* (*Zizyphus mauritiana*), *bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), *saj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *hanker* (*Flacorita indica*), tendu (*Diospyros melanoxylon*), etc., have also been preserved.

Cultivated Trees

The trees met with in villages are *bargad* (*Ficus benghalensis*), *gular* (*Ficus glomerata*) and *pipal* (*Ficus religiousa*) for *shade*, *imli* (*Temarindus indica*), *am* (*Mangifera indica*) and *jamun* (*Syzygium cumini*) for shade and fruit; *munga* (*Moringa olderfera*), *ber* (*Zizyphus mauritiana*), *bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), *lasora* (*Cordia dichotoma*) for fruit; *neem* (*Azadirachta indica*) for leaves and tooth brushes and *mahua* (*Madhuca latifolia*) for flower and fruit. *Sitaphal* (*Anona squamosa*) grows on deserted village sites in enclosures of old forts and in hedges of *khaliyans*. Besides these, numerous fruit trees are planted in gardens and orchards.

Other Types of Flora

Ground Flora.—During the rainy season, the forest floor is covered with myriad of tiny plants which grow to a height of a few inches and have only a short span of life, lasting for the period of the rainy season. Along with them grow the large plants which have a longer span of life. Though the shoots of these plants wither in the dry season yet the roots remain alive under the ground after storing food, to grow early next rainy season.

Except for the trees and plants having medicinal value or otherwise economically important, most of plants are considered as weeds, living on the fertility of the soil. They sometimes become serious obstacle in the successful regeneration of the forests.

The density of the ground flora is dependent upon the light reaching the ground through the canopy of the groves. Thus dense forests are almost free of ground vegetation. Due to the varying period of bloom in these plants, the forest floor presents a different picture at different times of the year. Space will not permit the description of most of the annul which itself is a fascinating study. It is, therefore, proposed to refer only to the more important of the common plants.

The plants which reserve food under the ground in rhizomes, *tubers, bulbs, bulbils, viz, Leea macrophylla, L. edgeworthi, L. robusta, salawari* (*Asparagus racemosus*), *anadmal* (*Hemidesmus indicus*), *Curcuma longa, Costus speciosus, kalimusli* (*Curculigo orchiodes*), *Zizgiber capitalum, musalkand* (*Dioscorea pentaphylla*), *Discorea bulbifera*, various other species of *Dioscorea, ramdaton* (*Smilax macrophilla*), *safed musli* (*Choloraphytum tuberosum*) and many other lilies, are the first to appear at the beginning of the rainy season. In teak forests, in August, the ground is almost wholly covered with *Curcuma, Costus* and *Zingibers*. They wither early in the rains and other species appear. *Puwar* or *tarota* (*Cassia tora*), covers large over grazed areas and blanks in the forest. This weed along with *gokhru* (*Xanthium strumarium*), is spread over large areas in the district causing damage to the forest crop of the district. *Sida spp, Abution spp;, Thespesia lampes, Triumfetta spp., Chorchorus spp* etc; flower in September, October and last till the end of the rainy season Others such as *Grewia spp , Flemingia spp, Digera spp. Desmodium spp.* and *Jatropha spp;* remain green in winter also.

The common climbers, creepers and twiners are *belpalas* (*Butea superba*), and *mahul* (*Bauhiniavahli*) in the moist valleys and *ramdaton* (*Smilax macrophylla*) *makai* or *eroni* (*Zizyphus oenoaplia*). *heoti* (*Ventilago madraspatana*), *chilati* (*Acacia pennata*) and *khakhaoondan* (*Celastrus paniculata*) in exposed open forests. The less common climbers are chil (*Acacia donaldi*), *phulkal* (*Gymnema sylvestre*), *gulhari* (*Millettia auriculata*), *gunji* (*Abrus precatorious*), *nasbel* (*Butea parviflora*), *jangli angoor* (*Witis linnaei*), *dudhbel* (*Vallaris solanaces*), *kewanch* (*Mucuna prurita*), *angi-sikha* (*Glorisoa supera*), *Hemidesmus indicus, Cryptostegia grandiflora, nagbel* (*Cryptolepis buchanani*), *jasminum multiflorum, sahner* (*Ichnocarpus frutescens*), *Ipomaea spp*; etc.

Parasites and Epiphytes.—*Banda* (*Dendrophtoe memecyclifolia*), is the most common plant parasite growing more commonly on *mahua*, *achar* and *reunjha* and less commonly on *tendu*, *saj*, *dhaura* and *seja* trees. The seeds of this parasite are dispersed through the agency of birds and roadside avenue show heavy infection. *Cuscuta reflexa* and *amarbel* (*C. Chinensis*) occur in drier localities on *babul*, *reunjha*, *ghont* and other trees. *Gurbel* (*Tinosopra cordifolia*) also occurs specially on larger trees. The semiparaitsic plants are *Dendrophloea falcata*, *Korthalsella opuntia*, *Striga asistica* and *Striga euphrasioides*. A few epiphytic orchids, *viz*., *Vanda roxberghii*. *Europhia compestris*, *Zeuxima sulcata* and *Habenaria digita* also grow their roots embedded in the dead bark of old trees.

Grasses.—The grasslands are scattered over the area mostly as wastelands, fringing forests of cultivated land. Many of the plots are periodically fenced for hay which is raised during the rainy seaosn and cut in October-November. The dominant grasses which come up on the black soil and occupy easy slopes and valleys are *gunher* (*Themeda caudata*), *Eulalia trispicata* and rusa (*Cymbopogon martini*). *Cymbopogon martini* yields a very valuable oil (*rusa oil*) but the oil is not extracted in Sagar. *Sehima nervosum* and *Tripogon lisboae* grow on sandy loam. In grazed areas every where chhoti-kel (*Bothriochloa pertusa*), *maruel* (*Dichanthium annulatum*), *barikel* (*Dichanthium caricosum*), and *musyal* (*Iseilema anthephoroides*), form the principal grasses. Lampa or *kusul* (*Herteropagon contortus*) is a very rough grass occupying eroded hill slopes and gullies. *Burgi* (*Aristida adscensionis*) and *pulsi* (*Melanocenchris cenchroides*) can grow even among rocks. Garlu (*Coix lachryma-jobi*) and *badawar* (*Iachaemum rugosum*) are found in damp silted and water-logged areas. *Doob* (*Cynodon dactylon*), the finest fodder grass is found growing on deeper soils, under moderate grazing. *Kans* (*Saccharum spontaneum*) and *Imperata cylindrica* are very deep-rooted pests of water-logged fields and invade black soil fallow land very rapidly. They can not be eradicted by the country plough and can be removed only by tractor ploughing. Other grasses which are found in this area are *Andropogon pumilus*, *Andropogon purpueoriceus*, *phuli* (*Apuda aristata*), *Arthraxon inermis*, *Thelepogon elegans*, *Ophiuros corymbosus*, *Manisurisgranularis*, *Cloris Virgata*, *Eleusine indica*, *Dactylocutenium aegyptium*, *Arundinella tuberculata*, *Eragrosis major*, *Sporobolus diandeps*, *Aristida cynantha*, *Attoleropsis cimicina*, *Digitaria royleanum*, *Digitaria sanguinalis*, *Brachiaria eruciformis*, *Echinochloa colanum*

Panicum iapanicum. Panicum ramosum, *Panicum prostratum, Panicum miliare, Paspalidum flavidum, Digitaria pedicillaris* and *khus* (*Vetvera zizanioides*). The roots of *Vetivera zianioides* are used for khus-tatti makings, and the well known aromatic oil *khus ka Itra* is obtained by distillaion. In most of the valley grass-lands, bushes of *Jharberi* (*Zizyphus nammularia*) and saplings of *palas* (*Butea monosperma*) and *reunjha* (*Acacia leucophloea*) are found growing. How ever the trees rarely attain full size due to excessive grazing by cattle and goats.

Sedges.—Near water channels, a good number of sedges are also found. Some of them are *Kyllingatriceps, Kyllinga brevifolia, Juncellus alopecuroides, Cyperus indicus, Celatus. C. esculentus, C. haspan, C. Leucocephalus* and two other species of *Cyperus, mariscus paniecus, Courtoisaia cyperiodes*, three species of *Scirpus, Scleria amularis, fimbristylis* amua, R. and S. var *diphylla*, kuk., *Fimbristylis disphyllai* vahl, *Varplusristriata*, and *elleocharis palustirs.*

Aquatics.—The aquatics vegetation is found abundatly in lakes, sluggish parts of streams and ponds. The commonest species are :—

Submerged Aquatics— *Hydrilla verticillata, Ceratophyllum demersus, Potamogetan crispus, P. Perfoliatus, Naias graminea, Ottelia alismoides, Vallisnerija spiralis*, and *Utricularia stellaris* etc.

Floating leaves.—*Kumudni* (*Nymphaea stellata*). *Kamal* (*Nelumbo nucifera*). *Limpanthemum indicum, Limnanthemum cristatum, Ptomogaton monostachyon, singhara* (*Trapa bispinosa*), *Jussieua repons, Impomaea reptans, Postamogeton indicus*, etc.

Free floating.—*Pistia stratiotes, Azolla pinnata, Spirodella polyrrhiza, Wolffia arrhiza*, etc.

Amphibious marsh plants.—Four common grasses, viz, *Hydrorhiza aristata, Panicum Proliferum, Oryza sativa* and *Paspalidium geminatum* together with the sedges *Eleocharis plantaginia, Scirpus littoralis, Fimbristylis diphylla. Kyllinga brevilla, juncellus alopecuroides. Cyperus exaltatus, Cyperus indicus, Cyperus carymbosus, Crinum sp, Cryptocoryne retrospiralis, Marslea quadrifolia* and a *Pteridophyte.* are very common in this area. *Eichhornic crassipes*, grows very rapidly from the margins of lakes and spreads over the whole water surface.

Pteridophytes—In addition to the plants mentioned above there are a large number of interesting species of the lower groups of plants, the following of which are worth mentioning :—

Equisetum debile, Adiantum cordatum, Adiantum semi cordatus, Ophioglossum vulgatum, Actniopteris dichotoma, Azolla pinnata, Marsilea quadrifolia, Pteris longifolia, Cheilanthes argentea, etc.

Mosses (Bryophytes).—*Funaria hygrometrica* is very common along with a few other species.

Liverworts—*Riccia spp., Plagiochasma appendi culatum, Cyathodium spp., Notothulas fimbriana, Targionia,* etc.

Algae—*Spirogyra, Ulthrix, Cladephora, Pithophora, Hydrodictyon, Chlamydomonas, Pandorina Eudorima, Zygnema Pleurococcus, Volvox, Chara, Nitella, Scenedesmus, Microcystis, Oscillatoria, Rivularea, Gloeotrichia, Nostoc, Anabaena, Oedogonium, Mougeotia,* etc.

Among diatoms several species of *Navicula, Pinnularia, Cymbella, Gomphonnema, Neidium, Eunotia Synedra* and*Nitzschia* are notable.

Fungi.—They are either saprophytic or parasitic, and are found on ground, dead-wood, trees, grasses and other plants. Some of them are species of *Agaricus, Lycoperdon, Lenzites* and *Geaster, Cyathus Xylaria, Daldinia concentrica, Irpex flavus, Polystictus hirsutus, Trametes Cingulata, Schizophyllum commune, Polyporus, Fomes lividus, Decdalea flavida, Lentinus subnudus, Ganoderma applanatum, Albugo spp., Peronospora spp., Erysimphe spp,, Purcina spp., Phyllachora spp., Cercospora spp, Ravenelia spp., Uromycess spp., Melampsora lini,* etc. More common pathogenic fungi found on forest trees are *Uncinula tectonea* forming a white covering over teak leaves, *Phyllactinia corylea* on *shisham, Ravenelia spp.,* on species of *Albizzia* and *Cercospora woodfordiae* on *Woodfordia fruticosa,* Several species of smuts are found both on wild and cultivated plants, which are the source of great loss.

From the soil a large number of Aspergilli and Penicillia have been isolated. In addition, some very notable fungi like *Saksenaea vasiformis, Monocillium indicum, Paecilomyces fuisporus, Gliocladiopsis sagariensis* and *Cephalosporium roseogriseum* which are new to science, have also been discovered.

Game Laws and Measures for the Preservation of Wild Life

The district is rich in Game both big and small. Horned game is found in good numbers all over the district, especially in the forests of the Khurai and Banda tahsils. Shooting of Game is regulated by the shooting rules made under the Indian Forest Act 1927.

The forests are divided into a number of shooting blocks and permits are issued by the Divisional Forest Officer for shooting games. There are no Game reserves in the district but shooting is not ordinarily permitted in the Ramna block. Protection of wild life is also provided under the Wild Animals and Birds Protection Act, 1912, and the Game Act, 1935.

FAUNA OR ZOOLOGY*

The old district Gazetteer, published in 1906, gave an account of the game animals of the district known to the *shikaris* of the time. These animals mostly included birds and mammals. Since then various reports have been published on the animal surveys of old Madhya Pradesh. Mention may be made here of the contribution by Evans, Baker, and Wroughton and Ryley on the fauna of butterflies, birds and mammals respectively. The accounts of King on the 'Resident Birds of Saugor and Damoh District' are very interesting. Moreover, the Records of the Nagpur Museum provide valuable information regarding the fauna of the various regions of old Madhya Pradesh. More recently Swarup (1952-53) has described the fish fauna of Sagar Lake and the Department of Zoology of the University of Saugar has made a detailed survey of the fish fauna of the Sagar district under a scheme sponsored by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research.

Mammals

Among the deer the most common, and found almost any where in open forest, is *Chinkara* (*Gazellabennettii*) and the *cheetal* or spotted deer (*Cervus axis*). The *Sambhar* (*Cervus unicolor*), which is essentially the animal of the hilly terrain, is found close to water courses in this district. The larger grassy blocks of forests in the Rehli and Deori ranges abound in *nilgai* or blue bull (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*). Large herds up to 25 animals are often met with. Other deer found are the *chowsingha* or four-horned deer (*Terracerus quardricornis*). Among the antelopes besides the blue

NOTE.—For details see Journal of Bombay Natural History Society, Vols. XX, XXI, XXII. Records of the Nagpur Museum Nos. 3,5,7 and Journal of Saugor University, Vol. I.

bull mentioned above, black buck *(Antelope cervicaprae)* is also commonly met with. Wild pigs (*Sus critatus*) are found all over the forest and cause destruction in young regeneration of tree species and bamboos by digging roots and rhizoms and to field crops near the forest.

Among the carnivora the tiger (*Felis tigris*) and panther (*Felis pardus*) are most common. The tiger is found in the larger blocks, but often migrates in winter to smaller blocks in quest of food. The chief haunts of this magnificient beast are the Abchand ravines Hanamatpadadi, Patrikota, Ghogra, Khanpur, Madaiya, etc. The panther is a very prolific breeder and is found everywhere. Shooting of the carnivora is easier in hot weather when the availability of water is restricted. The hyaenas, civet-cats and jackals are common, but wolves are rarely seen, and wild-dogs are often met with. The Indian sloth-bear (*Melursus urrinus*) is usually confined to the rocky country and dense forests.

The following 37 species of mammals have been reported in the district. The nomenclature used here is that followed by the Journal of the Bombay Natural History Society in the various papers dealing with their Mammal Survey of India. Brief notes regarding their breeding habits have also been provided, wherever available:—

Primates

(1) The Rhesus or Bengal Monkey. (*Macaca multta, Zimm*). Common. One young is usually born at a time.

(2) The langur or Hanuman Monkey (*Pithecus entellus, Duffensne*) very common. One young is usually born at a time.

Chiroptera

(1) The common Flying Fox (*Pteropus giganteus giganteus, Brunnich*),

(2) The little Indian, horse shoe Bat (*Rhinolophus lepidus,* Blyth). Not very common.

(3) The large leaf-nosed Bat (*Hipposideros lankadiva, Kelaart*). Not very common,

(4) The black-bearded, sheath-tailed Bat (*Taphozous melanopogon*). Not very common.

(5) The lesser Indian mouse-tailed Bat (*Rhinopoma hardwicked, Gray*). Not very common.

(6) The grey musk. Shrew (*Pachyura coerulea Krr*). Very common in the vicinity of human habitations. Litter of four young in September.

Carnivora.

(1) The Tiger (*Felis tigris L.*). Breeds practically throughout the year. The period of gestation is about 15 weeks. The number of young varies from one to seven. Usually two and rarely three cubs are seen with the mother. These remain with the mother for about 12 to 18 months and are adult in five years.

(2) The Leopard or Panther (*Felis pardus L.*). The mating season is chiefly in the hot weather and two to four cubs are born during the rains. The cubs take three years to arrive at full growth.

(3) The Leopard Cat (*Felis bengalensis*). It is rare,

(4) The Indian Cat (*Felis ornata*). Common.

(5) The Jungle Cat (*Felis affinis* Gray). Common. Two young are said to be produced at a time.

(6) The Caracal (*Felis caracal, Guldenstadt*). It is rare.

(7) The Indian, Palm Civet (*Paradoxurus Crossing Gray*). Common. Three to six young are generally brought forth in June.

(8) The common Indian Mongoose (*Herpestes edwardsi*, Wroughton). It breeds twice if not throughout the year. Three or four young are born at a time.

(9) The striped Hyaena (*Hyaena hyaena, Linnaeus*). Though generally solitary, as many as five have been seen together.

(10) The Indian Wolf (*Canis pallipes, Sykes*). Not very common.

(11) The Jackal (*Canis indicus kola,* Wronghton) Very common. Number of young in a litter is about four and they are probably dropped after the cold season.

(12) The Indian Wild Dog (*Cuon dukhunensis, Sykes*). They are said to breed chiefly from January to April and bring forth from two to five pups.

(13) The Indian Fox (*Vulpes bengalensis, Shaw*). Common, It is to some extent a beneficial animal to agriculture as it largely feeds on insects. Four young are produced at a time in burrows from February to April.

(14) The common Otter (*Lutra Lutra*, Linnaeus). Not very common. Two to five young are generally born at a time and there is probably no particular breeding season.

(15) The Sloth Bear (*Melurus ursinus*, Shaw). Two young are usually born at a time chiefly in the months of December and January.

Rodentia

(1) The common five striped Squirrel (*Funambuslus pennanti*, Wroughton). Common. Breeds throughout the year, bringing forth two to five young at a time.

(2) The common Indian Rat (*Rattus rattus rufescens*, Gray). This is the common house Rat. Breeds several times during the year, bringing forth seven to nine young at a time.

(3) The soft furred field Rat (*Millardia meltada meltada*. Gray) Very common field rat.

(4) The common house Mouse (*Mus urbanusm*, *Hodgson*). Common in houses Breeds from three to five times in a year, producing four to eight young at a birth.

(5) The Indian bush Rat (*Golunda ellioti*, Gray). This is a jungle species inhabiting dense bush. It is diurnal in its habits, feeding in the morning and evening.

(6) The common Indian Hare (*Lepus reficaudatus*, Geoff) Very common One or two young are born at a time.

Ungulata.

(1) The nilgai or Blue Bull (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*, *Pallas*). Very common. They breed practically throughout the year, bringing forth one or two young at a time.

(2) The four-horned Antelope (*Tetracerus quadricornis*, Blainville). Two or three young are born in the cold weather.

(3) The Indian Antelope or Black Buck (*Antelope cervicapra*. Limnaeous). Common. They breed throughout the year and bring forth one or two young at a time

(4) The Indian Gazelle (*Gazella bennetti*, Sykes). There is no fixed breeding time and one or two fawns are produced at a time.

(5) **The barking or rib-faced Deer** (***Muntiacus aureus* H. *Smith***). Rare. The rutting season is after the rains and one or two fawns are dropped in the beginning of the hot weather.

(6) The *chital* or spotted Deer (*Axis* axis axis, Erxleban). **The rutting season is April and May. Two is the usual** number of fawns and exceptionally one or three.

(7) **The Sambhar (*Rusa unicolour unicolour*, Kerr) Common.** They are stated to rut in December, January or February and to bring forth one or two young before the rains.

(8) The Indian Pangolin (*Manis crassicaudata*, Geoffr St. H.). Common, but rarely seen owing to its burrowing and nocturnal habits. One, rarely two young are born, probably at all times of the year.

Birds

King has described 153 species of birds as permanent residents of the Sagar and Damoh districts. He says, "I should have preferred to restrict this note to my own district Saugar but I have included Damoh for the sake of accuracy". In the present account 153 species are described taken from the above author. The nomenclature adopted is that used by Baker in his. 'Hand list of the Birds of India.' The breeding habits of most birds have been provided.

Passers

(1) The Indian jungle Crow (*Corvus coronoides levaillanti*, Less) Breeds in April.

(2) The Indian house Crow (*Corvus splendens splendens*, Vieill). Breeds in June and July.

(3) The Indian Tree-Pie (*Dendrocitta bagabunda* Lath). Breeds in April and May.

(4) The Southern yellow-cheeked Tit (*Machlolophus xanthogenys aplonotus*, Blyth). Breeds in April to June.

(5) The common Babbler (*Argya caudata caudata Dum*). Breeds from January to June if not throughout the year.

(7) The common *Iora* (*Aegithina tiphia tiphia L*.) Breeds in June-July.

(8) **Jerdons' Cloropsis** (***Chloropsis Jerdoni*, Blyth**). **Breeds** in June-July.

(9) The Central Indian red-vented Bulbul (*Molpastes haemorrous pallidus*, Baker). **Breeds in May-July.**

(10) The chestnut-bellied Nuthatch (*Sitta castaneiventris castaneiventris*, Frank). Breeds in April-May.

(11) The velvet-fronted Blue Nuthatch (*Sitta frontalis frontalis*, Lorsf). Breeds from February to June.

(12) The Black Drongo (*Ducrurus macrocercus macrocercus*, Vieill). Breeds in May-July.

(13) The Indian Tailor-Bird (*Orthotomus sutorius*, Front).

(14) **The rufous-fronted Wren-Warbler** (***Franklinia huncharnani*, Blyth**).

(15) **The Ash Wren-Warbler** (***Prinia Socialis*, Sykes**) **Breeds** in July-September.

(16) The jungle Wren-Warbler (*Prinia sylvatica sylvatica*, Jerd). Breeds in June-September

(17) The Indian Wren-Warbler (*Prinia inornata inornata*, Sykes). Breeds from August to October.

(18) The Indian grey Shrike (*Lenius exubitor*, Sykes).

(19) The rufous-backed Shrike (*Lenius Schach Brythronotus*, Vig) Breeds in June-July

(20) The black-backed Pied Shrike (*Hemipus picatus*, Sykes)

(21) The common Wood-Shrike (*Tephrodornis nondicerianus*, Gmel). Breeds from February to May.

(22) The small Minivet (*Paricrocotus peregrinus peregrinus* L.) Breeds from February to July.

(23) The white bellied Minivet (*Pericrocotus erythropygius*. Jerd). Breeds in July and August.

(24) The black-headed Cuckoo-Shrike (*Campophaga sykes*, Strick). Breeds from May to July.

(25) The large Cuckoo Shrike (*Graucalus macii macci*, Less). Breeds from April to June.

(26) The Indian Oriole (*Oriolus kundoo Sykes*) Breeds from May to July.

(27) The black-headed Myna (*Temenuchus pagodarum*. Gm.). Breeds from May to August

(28) The common Myna (*Acridotheres tristic*, L). Breeds from April to July.

(29) The Pied-Myna (*Sturnon stor contra contra*, L) Breeds from May to July.

(30) The Tickell's blue Flycatcher (*Cyornis banyumas tickelliae*, Blyth). Breeds in June.

(31) The Indian Paradise (*Terpsiphone paradisi paradisi*, L.). Breeds from June to July.

(32) The white-browed fantail Flycatcher (*Rhipidura aureola aureola*, Less). Breeds from March to July.

(33) The Northern Indian Pied Bush-Chat (*Saxicola caorata hicolour*, Sykes).

(34) The brown Rock-Chat (*Cercomela fusca*, Blyth). Breeds from March to July.

(35) The brown-backed Indian Robin (*Thamnobia fulicata cambaiensis*, Lath). Breeds from March to July.

(36) The Indian Magpie-Robin (*Copsychus saularis saularis*, Linn). Breeds from March to July.

(37) The Baya (*Ploceus philippinus philippinus* L.). Breeds from May to August.

(38) The white-throated Munia (*Uroloncha malabarica*, L.) Breeds from February to October.

(39) The spotted Munia (*Uroloncha punctualata punctualata*, L.). Breeds almost throughout the year.

(40) The green Munia (*Stictospiza formosa*, *Lath*). Breeds during the rains as well as during the cold season.

(41) The Indian red Munia (*Amandava amandava amandava*, L.)

(42) The yellow-throated Sparrow, (*Gymnorhis xanthosterna xanthosterna*, Banap)

(43) The Indian house Sparrow (*Passer domesticus indicus*, J. & S.) Breeds from February to May.

(44) The crested Bunting (*Melophus melanicterus*, Gmel). Breeds from April to August.

(45) The Indian Sand-Martin (*Riparia brevicaudata*, Mc. Clell). Breeds from November to February.

(46) The dusky Crag-Martin (*Ptynoprogne concolor*, Sykes). Breeds from January to February.

(47) The wire-tailed Swallow (*Hirundo smithii*, *Leach*). Breeds probably throughout the year.

(48) The Indian Cliff-Swallow (*Hirundo fluvicola*, Jerd) Breeds from January to March and from August to November.

(49) Sykes' striated-Swallow (*Hirundo daurica crythropygia*, Sykes). Breeds from April to August.

(50) The large-pied Wagtail (*Motacilla maderaspatensis* Gmel) Breeds in April and May.

(51) The small Indian Sky-Lark (*Alauda gulgula gulgula*, Frank). Breeds in May.

(52) The Ganges Sand-Lark (*Alaudula-raytal*, Blyth). Breeds in May.

(53) The singing buch Bush-Lark (*Mirafra cantillans cantillans*, Jerd). Breeds in April and again in August to September.

(54) The red-winged Bush-Lark (*Mirafra erythroptera*, Jerd). Breeds in April and again in July to September.

(55) The Crested-Lark (*Galerita cristata chendoola*, Frank) Breeds in April and May.

(56) Sykes' Crested Lark (*Galerita deva*, Sykes). Breeds from May to June.

(57) The rufous-tailed Finch-Lark (*Ammomanes phoenicura phoenicura*, Frank). Breeds from March to May.

(58) The ashy-crowned Finch-Lark (*Pyrrhulauda grisea*, Scop). Breeds from February to May and again in August to September

(59) The Indian White Eye (*Zosterops palpebrosa palpebrosa*, Temm).

(60) The purple-rumped Sun Bird (*Cyrtostomus asiaticus asiaticus*, Lath). Breeds chiefly from February to June.

(61) The thick billed Flower-pecker (*Piprisoma squalidum squalidum*, Burt) Breeds from February to May.

(62) The yellow-fronted pied Wood-pecker (*Liopicus mahrattensis*, Lath). Breeds from February to April.

(63) The Indian Pigmy Wood-pecker (*Iyngipicus hardwickii*, Jerdon). Breeds in March to April.

(64) The Northern golden-backed Wood-pecker. (*Brachypternus aurantius aurantius*, L.). Breeds from January to March.

(65) The Northern green-Barbet (*Thereicery xyzelanicus caniceps*, Frank). Breeds from March to May.

(66) The Indian crimson-breasted Barbet (*Xantholaema haematocephala indica, Lath*). Breeds from January to April.

Anisodacttli

(1) The Northern Indian Roller (*Corasias benghalensis, benghalensis*, L). Breeds from April to May.

(2) The common Indian Bee-eater (*Merops orientalis orien talis*, Lath). Breeds from April to May.

(3) The blue-tailed Bee-eater (*Merops superciliosus, iavanicus*, Horst). Breeds from April to May.

(4) The Indian Pied Kingfisher (*Cervle rudis loucomelamura*, Beich). Breeds from February to May.

(5) The common Indian Kingfisher (*Aleeds atthis bengalensis*, Gmel). Breeds from April to June.

(6) The brown-headed stork-billed Kingfisher (*Ramphal Cyon capensis gurial*, Pearson).

(7) The Indian white-breasted Kingfisher (*Halcyon smyrnensis fusea*, Bodd). Breeds from April to July.

(8) The common grey Hornbill (*Lophoceros birostris*, Scop) Breeds from April to June.

(9) The Indian Hoopoe (*Upupa epops orientalis*, S. B) Breeds from February to May.

Macrochires

(1) The common Indian Swift (*Micropus affinis affinis*, Gray) Breeds from February to August.

(2) The Indian Crested Swift (*Hemiprocne coroonata*, Tick). Breeds from March to April and probably again later.

(3) The common Indian Nightjar (*Caprimulgus asiaticus*, Lath). Breeds in April and May.

Coccyges.

(1) The Asiatic Cuckoo (*Cuculus canarus telephonus*. Heine).

(2) The common Hawk-Cuckoo or brain-fever Bird (*Hierococy varius*, Vahl).

(3) The Pied Crested-Cuckoo (*Clamator Jacobinus*, Bodd)

(4) The Indian Koel (*Eudynamis scolopaceus scolopaceus*, L.).

(5) The Southern Sirkeer-Cuckoo (*Taccocua sirkee leschenaulti*, Less). Breeds from May to August.

(6) The Southern Crow-Pheasant (*Centropus sinensis parroti*, Stres). Breeds from June to August.

Psittaci

(1) The large Indian Paroquet (*Psittacula eupatria nipalensis*, Hodg). Breeds from March to April.

(2) The Rose Ringed paroquet (*Psittacula torquata*, Bodd). Breeds from February to May.

(3) The Western blossom-headed Paroquet (*Psittacula cyano cephala syanocephala*, L). Breeds from February to May.

Striges

(1) The Indian Barn-Owl (*Tyto alba Javanica*, Gmel) Breeds from November to January.

(2) The Mottled Wood Owl (*Strix Occellata*, Less). Breeds from November to April.

(3) The Brown Fish Owl (*Ketupa zeylonensis relonensis*, Gmel). Breeds from December to April.

(4) The Indian spotted Owlet (*Carine noctuabrama*, Temm). Breeds from February to April.

Accipitres

(1) The Indian Griffen Vulture (*Gyps fulvus fulvescens*, Hume). Breeds in November.

(2) The Indian White-backed Vulture (*Pseudogyps bengalensis*, Gmel). Breeds in November.

(3) The Smaller white Scavenger Vulture (*Neephron percnopterus ginginianus*, Lath). Breeds from February to May.

(4) The Indian Fawny-Eagle (*Aquila rapax vindhiana*, Frank). Breeds from November to June.

(5) The white-eyed Buzzard (*Butastur teesa*, Frank). Breeds in April.

(6) The Brahminy-Kite (*Haliastur indus indus*, Frank). Breeds in April.

(7) The Indian Hawk-Eagle (*Spizaetus cirrhatus cirrhatus*). Breeds from December to April.

(8) The short Teed-Eagle (*Circaetus falicus,* Gmel). Breeds from January and May.

(9) The common Pariah-Kite (*Milvus migrans govinda,* Sykes). Breeds from October to February.

(10) The Shikra (*Astur badius dussumieri,* Temm). Breeds from April to May.

(11) The Indian Peregrine or Shahin-Falcon (*Falco peregrinus peregrinus,* Sund). Breeds in March and April.

(12) The Laggar-Falco (*Falco juggar,* Gray). Breeds from January to March.

(13) The Red-Headed Merlin (*Falco chiquera chiquera,* Daud). Breeds from January to May.

Columbae

(1) The Southern green Pigeon (*Crocopus phoenicopterus Chlorogaser,* Blyth). Breeds from March to June and again in September.

(2) The Indian Blue Rock-Pigeon (*Columba livia-intermedia,* Strike). Breeds throughout the year.

(3) The Spotted-Dove (*Streptopelia chinensis suratensis,* Gm). Breeds throughout the year.
ensis, Gm.). Breeds throught the year,

(4) The little brown Dove (*Streptopelia Senegalensis Cambayensis*). Breeds throughout the year.

(5) The Indian Ring-Dove (*Streptopelia Decaocto Decaocto.* Friv). Breeds throughout the year.

(6) The Indian red Turtle-Dove (*Oenopopelia tranquebarica tranquebarica,* Herm). Breeds throughout the year.

Pterocletes

(1) The Painted Sandgrouse (*Pterocles indicus,* Gmel). Breeds chiefly in April and May.

(2) The Common Indian Sandgrouse (*Pterocleurus seneealensis or langeri,* Neum). Breeds chiefly in April and May.

Gallinae

(1) The common Pea-Fowl (*Pavo cristatus,* L) Breeds April to May.

(2) The painted spur-Fowl (*Galloperdix lunulata,* Val). Breeds from April to May.

(3) The black-breasted or Rain-Quail (*Coturnix coramandelica,* Gmel) Breeds in August.

(4) The Jungle Bush-Quail (*Perdicula asiatica, asiatica,* Lath). Breeds from September to February.

(5) The rock Bush quail (*Perdicula asiatica argoondah*, Sykes). Breeds from September to February.

(6) The Northern painted Partridge (*Francolinus pictus Pallidus*, Gray). Breeds from April to September.

(7) The Northern gray Partridge, (*Francolinus pondicerianus interpositus*, Hart). Breeds from February to June.

Hemipodii

(1) The common Bustard-Quail (*Turnix Javanica taijoor*, Sykes). Breeds chiefly during the rains.

(2) The little Button-Quail (*Turnix dussumieri*, *Temm*). Breeds chiefly from June to September.

(3) The Indian Button-Quail (*Turnix tanki tanki*, Blyth). Breeds from June to September.

Grallae.

(1) The brown Crake (*Amaurornis akool*. Sykes). Breeds both before and after the monsoon.

(2) The Chinese white-breasted Water-Hen (*Amaurornis phoenicura chinensis*, Bodd). Breeds from May to September.

(3) The Indian Moor-Hen (*Gallinula chloropus pravifrons*. Blyth). Breeds from July to September.

(4) The Sarus (*Megalornis antigone antigone*, L.). Breeds in July and August and also in March.

Limicolae

(1) The Indian Stone-Curlew (*Burhinus oedicnemus indicus*, Salva). Breeds from February to August.

(2) The Great Stone-Plover (*Esacus recurvirostris*, Cuv). Breeds in February and May

(3) The Indian Courser (*Cursororius coromandelicus*, Gmel).

(4) The bronze-winged Jacana (*Metopidius indicus*, Lcth). Breeds from June to September.

(5) The pheasant-tailed Jacana (*Hydrophasianus chirurgus*, Scop). Breeds from June to September.

(6) The Indian red-wattled Lapwing (*Lobivanellus indicus indicus*, Bodd). Breeds chiefly from April to June.

(7) The yellow-wattled Lapwing (*Sarciobhorus malabaricus*, Bodd). Breeds from May to July.

(8) The little Ringed-Plover (*Charandrius dubius dubius*, Scop).

(9) The painted Snipe (*Restratuli benghalensis benghalensis*, L). Breeds at all seasons.

Gaviae

(1) The black-bellied Tern (*Sterna melanogaster*, Temm). Breeds gregariously in March, April or May.

Steganopodes

(1) The little Cormorant (*Phalacrocorax Javanicus* Horsf). Breeds in colonies in July.

(2) The Indian Darter or Snake-Bird (*Anhinga melanogaster*, Penn). Breeds in colonies in July.

Herodiones

(1) The white Ibis (*Threskiornis melanocephalus melanocephalus*, Lath). Breeds gregariously in June—August.

(2) The Indian black Ibis (*Inocotis papillosus papillosus*, Temm). Breeds at various seasons, March and April and again from August to December.

(3) The Indian Spoonbill (*Platalea leucorodia major*, Temm).

(4) The painted Stork (*Pseudotantalus leucocophalus leucocophalus*, Penn). Breeds gregariously in May.

(5) The Open-Bill (*Anastomus escitans*, Bodd). Breeds gregariously from April to July.

(6) The Eastern purple Heron (*Ardea purpurea manillensis* Meyen).

(7) The common Heron (*Ardea Cinerea, Cinerea*, Linn). Breeds in March.

(8) The little Egret (*Egretta garzetta garzetta*, Linn).

(9) The cattle Egret (*Bubulcus ibis coromandus*, Bodd) Breeds from June to August.

(10) The Indian Pond-Heron (*Ardeola gravii*, Sykes). Breeds in July and August.

(11) The Indian little green Heron, (*Butorides striatus Javanicus*, Horsf). Breeds in August and September.

Anseres

(1) The Nukhta or Comb-Duck (*Sarcidiornis melanota*, Penn). Breeds in July and September.

(2) The Cotton-Teal (*Nettopus coromandelianus* Geml). Breeds in July and August.

(3) The Whistling-Teal (*Dendrocygna javanica*, Horsf).

Pygopodes

(1) The Indian little Grebe or Dabehick (*Podicips ruficollis albipennis*). Breeds from July to September.

Other Vertebrates

The Amphibian fauna is restricted to frogs (*Rana*) and toads (*Bufo*). An interesting tree-frog *Rhacophorus* is found which possesses webbed-feet for gliding from branch to branch.

The reptilian fauna is rich in snakes both poisonous and non-poisonous. The poisonous snakes are kraits (Bungarus), Cobras (*Naia*) and vipers (*Echis* and *Vipera*,) the non-poisonous ones being Pythonoboa, grass-snake (*Tropidonotus*), rat-snake (*Zamenis*), sham kraait (*Lycodon*) *Macropisthodan* and *Typhlops*. Among lizards several species of *Varanus* and *Scincus* are common in jungles while the common wall lizard (*Hemidactylus*) is common in houses.

Fishes.—The district of Sagar is drained by the Betwa and Ken rivers and their tributaries; the water of these rivers ultimately drain into the river Jamuna in the north. Most of the rivers run in the hilly tracts and were merely streams. The rivers get swollen up during the rainy season, but for the greater part of the year have comparatively little water. The district has also a number of lakes and reservoirs of which the more important ones are the Sagar Lake, Ratona Lake, Khurai Lake and Chandia Reservoir; Ratona Lake is being utilised by the State Fisheries Department for the cultivation of food fishes.

The following 53 species of fresh water fish, all of which belong to the order *Teleostei* are found in the rivers and lakes of the district. The zoological names are given in brackets—

(1) Malot (*Labeo angra* H. B.).
(2) Goria (*Labeo boggut*, Sykes).
(3) *Labeo Calibasu*, H. B.
(4) Naren (*Labeo microphthalmus*, Day)
(5) Chaptra I (*Barbus amphibius*, Cuv. and Val).
(6) Mahaseer (*Barbus tor*, H. B.).
(7) Khaddia (*Barbus gelius*, H. B.).
(8) Sinnia (*Barbus sarana*, H. B.).
(9) *Barbus sophore*, H.B.
(10) *Barbus pinnauratus*, Day.
(11) *Barbus ticto*, H.B.
(12) Khaddia (*Barbus stigma*, H.B.).
(13) *Barbus melanostigma*, Day.
(14) Chaptra (*Barbus tetrarupagus*, Day).
(15) Khaddia (*Barbus chonoconius*, Day).
(16) Bhagna (*Scaphiodon thomassia*, Day).
(17) Bekhara (*Cirrhina reba*, Day).
(18) Gutua (*Garra modestus*, Day).
(19) Anjra (*Rasbora daniconius*, H. B.).
(20) Chahel (*Barilius endelisis*, H. B.).
(21) Chahel (*Barilius brana*, H. B.).
(22) Chahel (*Barilius everzardi*, Day).

(23) Palaiya (*Danio malabarious*, Jerd.)
(24) Palaiya (*Danio devario*, H. B.)
(25) Gurta (*Rohtee cotio*, H. B.).
(26) Gunguch (*Lepidocephalichthys guntea*, H. B.).
(27) Gunguch (*Nemachilus botia*, H.B.).
(28) Cat-Fish (*Siluridae*).
(29) Papta (*Callichrous bimaculatus*, Bloch).
(30) Papta (*Callichrous macrophthalmus*, Day).
(31) Silund (*Silundia gangetica*, Cuv. and Val.).
(32) Charia (*Eutropischthys vacha*, H B.).
(33) Padin (*Wallagonia attu*, Bloch).
(34) Gangra (*Rita payimentata*, Val.).
(35) Musha (*Pseudeutropius garus*, H. B.).
(36) Singhan (*Heteronopteus fossilis*, Bloch).
(37) Haror (*Mystus bleekeri*, Day).
(38) Jagla (*Mystus cayasius*, Day).
(39) Gangi (*Glyptossternum telchitta*, Day)
(40) Lambra (*Bagarius bagarius*, H. B.).

Clupeidae.

(1) Baren (*Chatoessus manminna*, H. B.).

Notopteridae.

(1) Patola (*Notopterus notopterus*, Pallas).

Scombrescidae.

(1) Sooja (*Xenentodon Cancila* H. B.).

Ophicephalidae.

(1) Billa (*Ophicephalus gachua*, H. B.).
(2) Karr (*Ophicephalus punctatus*, Bloch).
(3) Soar (*Ophicephalus striatus*, Bloch)
(4) Soar (*Ophicephalus marulius*, H. B.).

Nandidae.

(1) Lohatia (*Badis badis*, H. B.).
(2) Chamar (*Nandus marmoratus*, Cuv, and Val,).

Phynchobdellidae.

(1) Baam (*Mastacembelus armatus*, Lacep).
(2) *Mastacembelus panctatus*, H. B.

Percidae

(1) Jhanjra (*Ambassia ranga*, H. B.)

Gobiidae

(1) Patharchata (*Glossogobius giguris*, H. B.)
(2) Patharchta (*Glossogobius masoni*. Day).

It is interesting to note that the fish fauna of this district shows a paucity of carps (*Cyprinoids*) of economic value. None of the carps available exceed 12 inches (309·79 mm) in length and most remain only 2 to 6 inches (50.79 mm—152.4 mm) long. On the other hand some of the cat-fishes (*Siluroids*) such as *Mystus bleekri, Walloginia attu, Pseudeutropius grava, Futropiichthys, vacha* and *Silundia gangetica*) grow to more than 30 inches (761.99 mm) in length and they along with *Ophicephalus striatus* and *Mastacembelus armatus* which grow to about 20 inches (50799 mm) in length provided the main food-fishes of the district.

Other Animals.

Besides the worked-out fauna described above, there are several other groups of animals which inhabit the Sagar district. Some of the animals to which attention may be drawn are given below:

Spongilla, a fresh-water sponge has been collected from the Sagar Lake. A species of *Coelenterate* hydra is found attached to the aquatic plants in the Botanical garden of the University of Saugar. There are a number of reported parasitic animals such as the common round-worm, (*Ascaris*) the guineaworm (*Dracuneulus*), the tape worm *Taenia*) in man and *Acanthocephala* in rats. The blood-fluke (*Schistosoma*) is reported in fishes, Earth-worms, leeches, mussels (*Unio*), snails (*Limnea Planorbbis*), slugs, prawns, Crabs, Centipeds, (*Scutigera scolopendra*), millipedes (*Julus*), scorpions (*Buthus Plamnaeus*), spiders and *Galeodes* are common.

Insects

The district is rich in insect fauna. The more common insects are grasshoppers (*Conocephalus*, *Tryzalis Poocilocera, Hieroglyphus* and *Chrologonus*), mantids (*Hierodula, Schizocephala* and *Humbertiella*), cockroaches (*Blatta, Phullodromia*), earwigs (*Forficula*), termites (*Termes*), dragonflies (*Seschnid, Agrionid*), mayflies (*Ephemerid*), antlions (*Palpares*), aphidlions (*Chrysopa. Mantispa*), bees (*Abis, Xylocopa* and *Megachile*), sasps (*Polystis, Vaspa, Eumenes* and *Mutilla*) beetles (*Carabus, Cicindela, Anthia, Disuetes, Dytiscus, Gyrinus, Hydrophiius, Chilomenes, Coccinella, Epilachna, Aulcophora, Calendra, Bruckhus, Cantaris Mylabris* and *Galerucella*), mosquitoes (*Culex, Anopheles* and *Chronemus*), flies (*Musca, Taba-*

nus and *Sarcophaga*) and bugs (*Dysderus, Leptocorisa, Bagrada Ciceda, Pyrilla, Aphis, Alurodes, Corixa, Sphaerodema Belostoma* and *Ranatra*).

Butterflies.—The list of butterflies recorded from the Sagar district is practically the first dealing with invertebrate. Butterflies are perhaps the most popular group among the insects and are certainly the most beautiful. The following 27 species are described—

(1) The common Tiger (*Danais plexippus*, Linn).
(2) The plain Tiger (*Danais Chrysippus*, Linn).
(3) The blue Tiger (*Danais Limniace*, Cramer).
(4) The common Crow (*Euploea core*, Cramer).
(5) The Sailor (*Neptis enrynome*, Westwood).
(6) The blue Pansy (*Junonia orithya*, Linn).
(7) The yellow Pansy (*Junonia hierta*, Fabricius).
(8) The Peacock-Pancy (*Junonia almana*, Linn).
(9) The painted Lady (*Venessa cardu*, Linn).
(10) The great Eggfly (*Hypolimpas bolina*, Linn).
(11) The Leopard (*Atella phalantha*, Drury).
(12) The common Judy (*Abisara Echerius*, Stoll).
(13) The common Rose (*Papilio aristolochae*, Fabr).
(14) The Lime-Butterfly (*Papilio demoleus* Linn).
(15) The common Jezabal (*Delias eucharis*, Drury).
(16) The Pioneer (*Anaphaeis sentina, Cramer*).
(17) The striped Albatross (*Appias libythea, Fabr.*).
(18) The common Emigrant (*Catopsilia crocale*, Gramer).
(19) The mottled Emigrant (*Catopsilia pyranthe*, Linn).
(20) The Grass-Blue (*Chilades trochilus*, Foeyer var, putli Kollar).
(21) The tailed Cupied (*Everes aggiades, Pallas*).
(22) The Forget-me-not (*Catochrysops strabo*, Fabr.).
(23) The Gram-Blue (*Catochrysops onejus*, Fabr.).
(24) The brown Awl (*Badamia exclamationist*, Fabr.).
(25) The Indian skipper (*Hesperia galba*, Fabr.).
(26) The Bevan's Swift (*Caltoris, bevani, Moore*).
(27) The dark-branded Swift, (*Chapra mathias*, Fabr.).

Mortality from Reptiles and Wild Animals

Mortality from Snake-bite is fairly high in the district. In 1962, 73 persons died of snake-bites. In the same year only two persons were killed by leopards and 17 heads of cattle were lifted by tigers. and panthers. Tigers are not a great menace to human and animal life in the district.

CLIMATE

The Climate of this district is generally pleasant and salubrious. The cold season from November to February is followed by the hot season from March to the middle of June. The monsoon season is from mid-June to the end of September. The transition from monsoon to winter condition occurs in October.

For statistical and scientific study of the climate, the Indian Meteorological Department has a 'C' class observatory at Sagar. There are eight rain-guage stations in the district located at Sagar, Khurai, Rehli, Banda, Garhakota, Deori, Chandia Nallah and Majgahan Hansraj. The readings of the observatories and rain-gauge stations located immediately around the district also help to explain the climate of Sagar district.

Temperature.

The meteorological data available for the observatory at Sagar town may be taken as representative for nearly all parts of the district but for slight difference due to local physical environment, *e g.*, height from the mean sea level, the vegetation, the water bodies and so on. January is the coldest month of the year with average mean monthly temperature of 18.05°C (64.49°F). The average mean monthly temperature reaches the highest point in May when it is 33.45°C (92.21°F). As regards the mean daily temperature during the days and the nights, they generally correspond to the average mean monthly temperature, the minimum being in January. During the winter season when the district is affected by cold waves in the wake of western disturbances moving north-east-ward across north India the minimum temperature may go down to a little above the freezing point of water. Both, the day and night temperatures rise progressively from January to May. But from May to January, only the night temperature falls progressively. The on-set of the monsoon, following the accumulation of clouds, by mid-June brings down the temperatures (both day and night) considerably but the day temperature begins to rise after August and reaches a secondary maximum in October.

The daily range of temperature is highest, 14.4°C (57.92°F) in the month of April due to the low percentage of humidity in the atmosphere. This range decreases considerably in July, making the lowest range of temperature 6°C (48.8°F) in August in which month the humidity is recorded to be the higest with the full scene of rainy season.

Atmosphereic Pressure, Wind Direction and Speed.

Apart from the local and temporary variations, the low-pressure belt generally spreads in the northern plains in the summer months.

A weeker low-pressure area falls in the ocean in the south during the winter months. The wind follows from high presure to low-pressure (high temperature).

During the monsoon, the winds blow mainly from the direction between south-west and north-west, winds from other directions also set-in during October and by November winds blow from all directions of the compass. It happens so due to the shifting of low and high pressure belts and consequently the retreat of westerly monsoon and the advent of north-easterly trade winds. During the winter months the winds come from the directions between north and south-east, South-westerlies and westerlies are common in the summer.

The winds are more prevalent and strong at Sagar than at the adjoining meteorological centres. The number of calm days is small and the wind speed is high throughout the year. In the post-monsoon and early winter months the wind speed is lesser than in other months. The lowest mean wind speed is 11.1 kilometers per hour in November while the highest mean wind speed is 20 8 kilometers per hour in the month of July.

Cloudiness and Rainfall

Clouds begin to accumulate in the sky with the south-westerly and westerly winds in the late summer months. Heavily clouded or over cast skies are a regular feature during the monsoon season. In the rest of the year skies are generally clear or lightly clouded.

There are eight rain-guage stations in the district the records of which are available for periods raging from 25 to 70 years prior to 1959 A.D. The date of the rainfall at eight stations and for the district as a whole are given in the Appendix I and II.

The average annual rainfall over the district is 1235 mm. (48.63"), A heavier amount of rainfall occurs along the south-western boundary of the district and diminishes towards the north and slightly towards the east. In the south-eastern part of the district, Rehli gets a marked low amount of rainfall mainly due to its location in the valley on the lee-ward side of the hill range. Banda, the northern most revenue rain-gauge station records the lowest annual rainfall in the district. The monsoon reaches the district by the middle of June and withdraws in the beginning of October, July being the month with the heaviest rainfall. During the monsoon months the district receive about 90 per cent of the annual rainfall The variation of the rainfall from year to year is not large. During the 50 years period from 1901 to 1950, the highest rainfall in the district amounting to 144

per cent of the Sagar average, fell in 1934. In 1919, the year of lowest rainfall, the corresponding figure was 50 per cent of the average. In this 50 year period there were 10 years when the district rainfall was less than 80 per cent of normal, no two of which were consecutive years. Two or three consecutive years of low rainfall have occurred once or twice at most of the individual stations in the district. It will be seen from Appendix 2 that in 34 years out of 50 the annual raifall in the district was between 1,000 and 1,500 mm.

The district as a whole gets rain of 2.5 mm. (10 cents) or more on 67 days in a year on the average. This number varies between 53 and 63 over the differennt parts of the district. The hilly tract around Deori south of Sagar and south-west of Garhakota experiences a large number of rainy days than the areas in the north and the east. The spatial distribution of the number of rainy days mostly corresponds to the distribution of annual rainfall in the district.

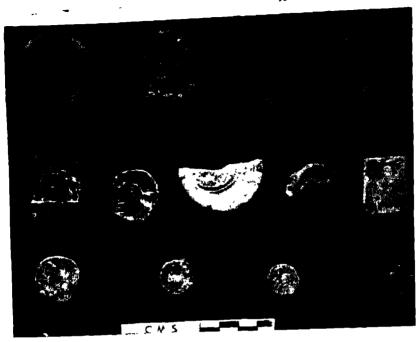
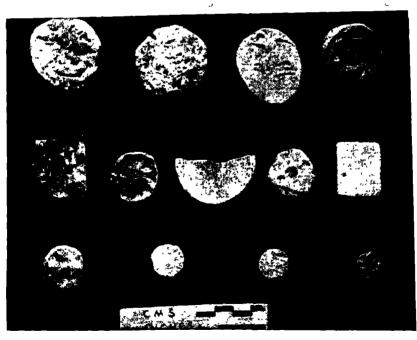
The highest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 312.4 mm. (12.30") in 1939, July, 14 at Chandia Nallah the station with the smallest number of rainy days in the district.

Humidities

The percentage of humidity as recorded in the Sagar observatory, varies at different hours of a day as also from month to month in a year. The relative humidity is recorded at 8.30 a.m. and at 5.30 p.m. The percentage humidity is higher in the morning than in the evening, all round the year. The difference between the morning and evening records is lowest in the month of July and highest in the month of December. In the yearly cycle, the summer is extremely dry, specially in the afternoon when relative humidities of about 15 per cent are common. During the monsoon the moisture content of the air is high; the humidity falls off to values well below 50 per cent with the withdrawal of the monsoon by the end of September.

Special Weather Phenomena

Heavy rain and strong winds are caused in the district by depressions which come from the Bay of Bengal during the monsoon months and occasionally in association with post-monsoon storms and depressions of October. Thunderstorms occur practically throughout the year but are more common during the summer and monsoon months. The thunderstorm of the winter and pre-monsoon months are at times accompanied by hail. Fog may occur occasionally in the winter season.

Appendices II, IV and V give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and frequency of special weather phenomena respectviely for the observatory station at Sagar.

Copper Coins (Obverse) from Eran.

Copper Coins (Reverse) from Eran.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY.

The results of some recent archaeological explorations would lead one to conclude that the tract covered by the District of Sagar is of great antiquity. Certain relics found at Deori, Moar, Sukchain and Duhar nullahs, Burdhana, Keolari and the valley of Bina, have been identified as tools used in the Palaeolithic age[1]. Other stone tools belonging to a later stone age have been located at Garhi Morila and Bahutarai, while some recent explorations have brought to light a number of painted rock shelters at Nariaoli and Abchand which would suggest the existence in this region of an ancient civilisation, which embraced a settled domestic living, dance, hunting, horse-riding, scenes of which are portrayed in the rock paintings.[2]

During the 6th century B.C. this area was probably included in the extensive Chedi kingdom which was one of the sixteen *mahajanapadas* of northern India. Subsequently this region is known to have been included in the Pulinda-desa, which embraced the western portion of Bundelkhand and the district of Sagar.[3] An elusive reference to Sagar may be located in the account of Ptolemy. According to him the town of the Phullitoe (Pulindas) was Agara (Sagara).[4]

The earliest historical evidence which throws light on the ancient history of Sagar district consists of a number of coins discovered at Eran which on palaeographic grounds have been assigned roughly to third century B. C.[5] Among these coins the most remarkable is one bearnig the name of a king Dharmapala who might have been a ruler of the region round about Eran. Apart from the testimony of this single coin we know nothing about this king or his dynasty. Some other inscribed coins bear the name of the city state Erakanya or Erakaina (modern Eran). As the legend contains the name of the state instead of any particular king, it has been suggested that like Madhvamika, Tripuri or Ujjayini, Eran must have been the capital

1. J. C. Brown, Catalogue of Pre-Historic Antiquities in the Indian Museum, Calcutta, pp. 62-63; Indian Archaeology - A review, 1958-59, pp 26, 72; 1959-60, p. 70; 1960-61, p 13
2. Indian Archaeology—A Review, 1958-59, p 72; 1959-60 p 70, 1960-61, p 62.
3. Vaman Puran, Ch 76.
4. Nundolal Dey, The Geographical Dictionary of Ancient and Mediaeval India, p. 161; Cunningham, Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. XVII, pp. 113, 139.
5. Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. X, pp 77–81, Vol XIV, pp 148-49.

of a republican state for some time. According to another suggestion the issuers of these coins could probably have been bank—guilds operating at Eran, for such bank-guilds were usually empowered in ancient India to issue coins.

Subsequently the region of Eran and the rest of the present Sagar district was included in the Maurya empire, and later, in the dominion of the Sungas. Agnimitra, the eldest son of Pushyamitra Sunga, is known to have been ruling at Vidisha in the 2nd century B. C. In one of the votive inscriptions of Sanchi belonging to this period, the famous Buddhist stupa is said to have received a donation from an inhabitant of Eran.[1] Very little is known of the subsequent period in this region until the foundation of the imperial power of the Guptas.[2]

The begining of the 4th century A. D. saw the rise of the Gupta political supremacy in North India with their capital at Pataliputra. Samudragupta, the "illustrious" son of Chandra Gupta I, is known to have carried his arms to the Central and Southern India and vanquished several kings. His Allahabad Pillar Inscription states that the Sakas and the Murundas submitted to the mighty Gupta emperor and solicited his charters confirming them in the enjoyment of their own territories[3]. It has been suggested that the subdued Saka chief was Sridharavarman who, from his two inscriptions, is known to have been ruling over the Vidisha-Eran territory. From his Kanakhera Inscription it appears that Sridharavarman began his career as a military officer, probably of the contemporary Abhira king, and later rose to the status of a feudatory.[4]

With the decline of the power of Abhiras he appears to have declared his independence, though he did not for some time discard his previous military titles or the Abhira reckoning which had become popular in the country under his rule Another inscription of his reign has been discovered at Eran. The inscription dated in his 27th reignal year refers to him as *Rajan* and *Mahakshatrapa* and son of Saka Nanda. The record which is incised on a pillar, called *yashti*, was erected by Satyanaga, the *Arakshika* and *Senapati* of Sridharavarman, as memorial to the Naga soldiers who met a hero's death in a battle fought at the *adhishtthana* of Erikina[5].

1 Epigraphia Indica, Vol II, p. 375
2. Recent excavations have brought to light copper coins of kings named Ramgupta, Sivagupta and Sakhadeva, who might have ruled over this region. The former two belong to the second century B C., and the third to the third century A. D A circular lead piece bearing the impression of a die and having a legend in Mauryan Brahmi refers to another king Indragupta.
3. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, P. 14.
4 *Ibid*, Vol. IV. pt I, P XXXVII
5 *Ibid*, P. XXXVIII.

In that record Satyanaga, who hailed from Maharashtra, expressed the desire that the pillar, erected by the Nagas, would inspire future generations of martial races to perform similar heroic deeds." Unfortunately no particulars of the battle in which the Naga soildiers laid down their lives have been preserved in the inscription.

It would be interesting to mention here some details about Sridharavarman, who is the first historical ruler in the annals of Sagar district. Though he belonged to an alien race, he was a follower of the Hindu religion. He was a devout worshipper of Karttikeya and, like an orthodox Hindu, desired to secure "the eternal attainment of heaven" by means of charitable works like the excavation of a well. In both the inscriptions Shridharavarman is described as a *dharmavijayin* or a righteous conqueror, which implies that he did not wage any war for self-aggrandisement. He followed a liberal policy in matters of state and, irrespective of any consideration, appointed able persons on important posts. His inscriptions are composed in a good Sanskrit *kavya* style. This shows that Sridharavarman, like his contemporary Gupta and Kshtrapa rulers, extended liberal patronage to Sanskrit poets at his court.

The Saka ruler may have paid homage to the Gupta emperor some time after 365 A. D., when he heard reports of the latter's brilliant triumphs in other parts of the country. Subsequently Samudragupta, on some provocation, attacked Sridharavarman's principality and obtained a decisive victory over him in the battle of Erikina. He then annexed the region round Eran and erected a monument there 'for the sake of augmenting his fame'.[1] He appears, however, to have allowed the Saka king to continue in possession of the rest of his kingdom as he did in the case of some other republican tribes in this region such as Sanakanikas and the Kharaparikas.[2]

This last vestige of the Saka rule was finally wiped out by Chandragupta II, the son and successor of Samudragupta, who first conquered eastern and western Malwa in course of his 'conquests of the whole earth' some time in the closing year of the 4th century A.D. The next Gupta emperor, Kumargupta I, continued to hold his sway over this region. The inscriptions have preserved the names of some of his feudatories and governors. Ghatotkachagupta, a member of the royal family, and probably a son or brother of the emperor, was ruling in Eran with jurisdiction over Tumbavana (modern Tumain) about 50 miles to the north-west of Eran. During

1. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 21.
2. That the Sanakanikas and the Kharaparikas belonged to Central India is shown by some inscriptions. For details see Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 25, and Rai Bahadur Hiralal's Inscriptions in the Central Provinces and Berar, P. 58.

the last days of Kumargupta I and early reign of Skandagupta, though the incursions of the barbarous Huna tribe from Central Asia shook the foundations of the Gupta empire they did not affect the Gupta sway over the region of Sagar as is evident from a stone pillar inscription discovered at Eran. The inscription dated 484-85 A.D. records the erection of flag-staff (*dhvaja-stambha*) in honour of the God Vishnu by *Maharaja* Matrivishnu and his younger brother Dhanyavishnu, while Budhagupta's feudatory Surasmischandra was governing the country lying between the Kalindi (Yamuna) and Narmada river.[1] Apparently Matrivishnu was the local governor in the district (*vishaya*) round Eran in 484 A.D., and the stone pillar bearing the inscription erected by him was in front of the temple of Vishnu already built by Samudragupta.

By the close of the 5th century A. D. the Hunas had penetrated almost upto the region occupied by the present Sagar district. Their chief, Toramana, had established his supremacy over east Malwa by totally extirpating the Guptas. This is evident from a stone inscription of the reign of Toramana discovered at Eran. This record, which is incised on the chest of a colossal statue of the Boar, speaks of the construction of a temple by Dhanyavishnu after the death of his brother Matrivishnu, 'in the first year while the Maharajadhiraj, the glorious Toramana of great fame and of great lustre, is governing the earth.[2] The mention of Matrivishnu as deceased is significant since it shows that some time after 484-85 A. D., but within one generation of his death, Toramana made himself master of this region.

One of the memorable battles fought at Eran was during the reign of the Gupta emperor Bhanugupta in the Gupta year 191 (510-11 A.D). In this battle Goparaja, 'renowned for manliness', who had accompanied Bhanugupta as his ally, died fighting. His wife immolated herself on his funeral pyre. The battle fought by Bhanugupta might have been either the unsuccessful resistance offered to Toramana or a campaign for putting an end to Huna's occupation of Malwa. The event was fittingly commemorated, evidently by the royal command, by incising a short inscription on the opposite side of the same pillar which contained Satyanaga's exhortation for war-like people to perform such heroic deeds for more than a century. A panel, showing Goparaja and his wife sitting on a couch, was also sculptured on the face of the pillar immediately above the centre of the inscription.[3]

1. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 88.
2. *Ibid*, pp. 158—61.
3. *Ibid*, Vol. IV, pt. II, p. 608.

Colossal Varaha Image at Eran

After the downfall of the Gupta empire towards second half of the 6th century A. D., we again enter an obscure period in the history of Sagar district. Once this region was included in Jejakabhukti which was the ancient name of modern Bundelkhand. The earliest reference to this region by this name is in the account of the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsang (629—45 A.D.), who states that Jajhoti lay beyond the jurisdiction of Harsha's empire and was being governed by an independent Brahmana king.[1]

The history of Sagar district in the years following the collapse of Harsha's empire is again uncertain. By the end of the 9th century A.D., however, the major portion of Jejakabhukti passed under the Chandellas who succeeded in carving out a mighty empire over the undulating hills of Bundelkhand. The region over which they ruled, as ascertained from epigraphic records, approximately coincides with modern Bundelkhand, comprising in its wider extent all the country to the south of Jamuna and Ganga, from the Betwa river in the west to the temple of Vindhyavasini (South Mirzapur) in the east including the districts of Sagar, Damoh and Jabalpur.[2]

During their occupation of the Sagar region, the Chandellas came in conflict with their contemporary Kalachuris who were ruling at Tripuri. These two powers were constantly engaged in a struggle for supremacy over this region. The earliest Kalachuri inscription of about 8th century A. D., brought from an unrecorded locality and preserved in the Garden of the Military Mess-house at Sagar, refers to a Kalachuri king Sankaragana.[3] What role this king and his successors played in the political history of Sagar district, it is not possible to say. Recent discovery of a number of Kalachuri remains within Sagar district, however points to the great religious and artistic activities that the region must have witnessed during this period.[4]

The other powers who tried to extend their sway over this region were the Paramaras of Malwa and the Chaulukyas of Gujarat, both of whom thus came into conflict with the Chandellas. During the weak rule of the successors of Chandella Dhanga, (c.950—1003 A. D.) this region seems to have passed into the hands of the Paramaras. But the Chandella ruler Madanavarman (c.1120—1163 A. D.) exploited the opportunity of the Paramaras conflict with the Chaulu-

1. On Yuan Chwang's Travels in India, Tr. by Thomas Watters, Vol. II, P. 251; also The Classical Age, pp. 112-13.
2. Cunningham, Ancient Geography of India, p. 552
3. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, pp. 174—76.
4. Indian Archaeology—A review, 1958-59, p. 72; 1959-60, p. 70.

kyas of Gujarat and acquired this region which lay adjacent to his dominion. His sway over Sagar–Damoh region is confirmed by the Semra Plates which refer to the grant of places located in the Sagar district.[1] It is known that one of his governors stationed at Bilhari in Jabalpur district administered the neighbouring territory including Sagar and Damoh where the Chandella rule is still remembered.[2] Successive defeat of the Paramaras at the hands of the Chaulukyas brought the Chandellas closer to the Chaulukya dominion and ultimately a clash between the ambitious powers became inevitable. The Gujarat chronicles, including the *Kirtikaumudi* refer to the invasion of Kalinjar by the powerful Chaulukya ruler Jayasimha (1094—1143 A. D.). The *Kumarapalacharita* claims that Jayasimha defeated Madanavarman, the lord of Mahoba, but came to terms with the Chandellas and was compelled to withdraw his forces. The conflict thus proved indecisive neither side gaining advantage over the other.[3]

Madanavarman was succeeded by his grandson Paramardi, son of Yasovarman II, shortly before A. D. 1165. The inscriptions of his reign, bearing the dates between A.D. 1165 and 1201 prove that he succeeded in maintaining his paternal kingdom for a long time. The fact that he assumed the title "the lord of Dasharna" indicates that he was able to recover the Eastern Malwa region including Vidisha and Sagar from the Chaulukyas. This is evidenced by a record date V. S. 1223 (c. 1166 A. D.) which refers to the grant of land in the Vikaura *vishava* which has been identified with modern Beekore in Sagar district.[4] About A. D. 1182, Chahamana ruler Prithviraja III defeated Paramardi and over-ran Jejakabhukti *mandala*. But Paramardi soon recovered his lost dominions as Prithviraja became embroiled in wars against Muhammad Ghuri in which he ultimately met with his death. Soon after in 1202 A. D., the battle of Kalinjar was fought and Paramardi, who had offended his people by his ignominous alliance with Qutb-ud-din Aibak, was assassinated by his minister.

His son, Trailokyavarman (c. 1205–1247 A. D.), however, succeeded in retrieving the waning fortunes of his kingdom and recovered almost all the territories including Kalinjar by inflicting a crushing defeat on the Muslim invaders. His Garra Plates dated V. S. 1261 (c. 1204 A. D.) record that he granted lands situated in the region now included in Sagar district.[5] Another copper plate

1. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. IV, pp. 153—170; Vol. XVI, p. 274.
2. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXXVII, p. 132.
3. N. S. Bose, History of the Chandellas, pp. 89-90.
4. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XVI, p. 274.
5. *Ibid*, pp. 272-74.

inscription of his reign dated V. S. 1264 (c. 1207 A. D.), though recovered from Sagar, does not, however, contain any reference to it.[1]

In the meantime the Paramaras, whose territory had been annexed by the Chaulukyas of Gujarat had again become powerful in the later half of 12th century A.D. The contemporary records show that the Paramaras enlarged their influence over this region and continued to rule for about hundred years.[2] The history of Sagar district, during this period, becomes largely a matter of tradition. It is known that various minor Rajput dynasties had ruled over different parts of the district from time to time. The kings of Garhpahra or old Sagar were Dangis, who claimed their decent from Raja Dang, a Kachhwaha Rajput of Central India. They were dominant over Khurai, Khimlasa, Eran, Dugaha and Malthone and the entire area was called Dangiwara after them. Round about Khimaria and Rehli also, the Ahir immigrants carved out small principalities. In about 1023 A. D., the Ahirs were subverted by Raja Nihal Shah, a Rajput from Jalaun, who took possession of Sagar and Surrounding country with about 350 villages.[3]

It cannot be stated with certainty when Sagar passed into the hands of the Muslim kings of Delhi. There is, however, some reason to suppose that the penetration of the Muslim domination started soon after the battle of Kalinjar (1202 A D.) which sounded the death-knell of the Chandella power. After the last great Chandell prince Hammiravarman (c. 1289—1308 A. D.) the region round Garha, most probably, became a part of the Sultanate of Delhi, for the Garha Katanga covering the line of communication between Hindustan and southern India might have been brought under the control of Ala-ud-din Khalji before his campaigns in the Deccan.[4] From the scanty material available it would be safe to presume that for next two centuries or more Muslims ruled over this area.[5]

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1. Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society (New Series), Vol. XXIII, pp. 47—51.
2. Indian Antiquary Vol. XX, p. 84; Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. X, p. 31.
3. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Saugor District, 1867, p. 4.
4. This is also borne out by Abul Fazl's statement that Asaf Khan, after the capture of Chauragarh in 1564 A. D., secured one hundred jars (*degs*) full of Ala-ud-din's *ashrafis*. Some of these gold *mohurs* are still worn by the Gond women as armlets. See Akbarnama, Tr. by Beveridge, Vol. II, p. 332.
5. Batiagarh (24° 05′ N, 79° 20′ E) a small village in Hatta tahsil of Damoh district, is situated at a distance of two miles from Sagar boundary. The Batiagarh Sanskrit inscription dated V. S. 1385 (1328 A. D.) and the Persian inscription dated 725 A. H. (1324 A D.) prove the existence of Muslim rule in the neighbourhood of Sagar district. Coins of Tughluq rule, discovered recently at Konikheri in Banda tahsil, contain names of Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq, Firuz Shah Tughluq and prince Fateh Khan. See Epigraphia Indica, Vol XII, p. 44; and Inscriptions in C P. and Berar, pp. 58-59.

The dismemberment of the Delhi Sultanate at the end of the fourteenth century gave an opportunity to local chiefs to reassert their power and led to Jadurai's founding a Gond kingdom in south-east of Sagar, although there are different versions of the story[1]. One of Jadurai's successors Sangram Shah (1480—1541 A.D.), issuing from the Mandla highlands, enlarged his patrimony by annexing large portions of the Narmada valley and the districts now called Sagar and Damoh as well as much of the former state of Bhopal[2]. Sangram Shah, 'an exterminating fire to his foes,' was the real maker of the kingdom of Gonds and at his death the original four *garhas* which formed this kingdom increased to not less than fifty two, some being situated within the confines of the present Sagar district[3] His son and successor, Dalpat Shah, had an uneventful reign. On his death in 1548 A. D., his son Bir Narayan, being about three or five of age, the dowager queen Durgavati, assumed the reins of the government. For the next sixteen years (1548–64 A. D.) she ruled over this territory wisely and such was the level of prosperity that people paid their rent in gold *mohurs* and elephants.[4]

But this prosperity soon brought its unfailing nemesis. Fired by tales of her wealth and the hope of rich territorial gains, Asaf Khan, the Mughal governor at Kara Manikpur, invaded her kingdom in 1564 A.D., at the head of a large army well equipped with a train of artillery. Undeterred by this calamity, the Gond queen made a gallant defence, but having been wounded on the battle-field, she preferred death to dishonour and died by her own hand rather than fall into the hands of her adversary.

The triumph of the Mughal arms marks an epoch in the history of Sagar district. Hereafter the Mughal emperors started exercising a form of suzerainty over this region. After Asaf Khan's withdrawal, the administration of this hilly country was found irksome and Akbar restored Chandra Shah, an uncle of the ill-fated Bir Narayan and younger brother of Dalpat Shah, to a part of his former Kingdom. The remaining portion of the Kingdom held by many subordinate Rajas and *Rais* was brought under direct Mughal rule.[5]

1. C. U. Wills, the Raj-Gond Maharajas of the Satpura Hills, pp. 11 -33.
2. Journal of the American Oriental Society, Vol. VII, p 14.
3. The *garhas* of Dhamoni, Shahgarh, Khimlasa, Deori and Gourjhamar had 750 *mouzas* each, while the *garhas* of Etawa, Garhakota, Garhpahra, Rahatgarh and Rehli had 360 *mouzas* each
4. *Ain-i-Akbari*, Tr by Jarrett. and revised by J. Sarkar, Vol. II, p 207
5. According to Sleeman, Chandra Shah was obliged to cede the ten districts which afterwards formed the erstwhile state of Bhopal *viz*, Rahatgarh, Ginnaur, Bari, Chaukgarh, Makrayi, Karubagh, Kurwai, Raisen, Bhaurasa and Bhopal; see also journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. VI, p. 630; and Mandla District Gazetteer, 1912, p. 32.

In the territorial re- organization of Akbar the portions of Sagar district, as now constituted, fell into two *sarkars* namely Raisen and Chanderi in the subah of Malwa. The sarkar of Raisen included the *mahals* of Dhamoni and Khimlasa whereas Eran and Etawa were included in the *sarkar* of Chanderi. The *mahal* of Dhamoni had an area of 13,007 *bighas* yielding a revenue of 7,88,389 *dams* and contributed 5 horsemen and 400 infantry to the army. The *mahal* of Khimlasa with 11,720 *bighas*, paid, 6,45,665 *dams* and its contribution to the Imperial army was 40 horsemen and 100 infantry. The *mahal* of Eran was comparatively smaller, as it paid only 1,759 *dams* on an area of 1,759 *bighas* and provided 10 horsemen and 100 foot to the army. The *mahal* of Etawa seems to be a well-cultivated tract, as it paid a revenue of 80,000 *dams* on an area of 2,315 *bighas* and supplied 15 cavalry and 50 infantry. The inhabitants of these regions did not vary greatly, as the Rajputs predominated in Khimlasa, Dangis in Eran, and Ahirs in Etawa. The rest of the Sagar district was included in the *sarkar* of Garha in the *Subah* of Malwa.[1]

At about this time the history of district began to centre round Dhamoni, a fortified place about 26 miles north of Sagar near the Dhasan river. The region adjoining the fortress of Dhamoni then formed a part of the dominions of the Bundela chieftain Jhujhar Singh, the eldest son of Bir Singh Dev of Orchha.[2]

In 1634 Jhujhar Singh attacked the Gond Raja Prem Narayan, whose fort of Chauragarh, was seized after his treacherous assassination.[3] Dreading the wrath of the Mughal emperor whom he had offended earlier, Jhujhar Singh fled and took refuge in Dhamoni fort, which his father had built. Here he was joined by his son Yograj (surnamed Vikramajit) from Balaghat. When the Mughal forces under the command of Aurangzeb arrived at 3 *kos* from Dhamoni, they found their prey had gone further south, where he died at the hands of Gond assassins. Before leaving he had, however, prepared Dhamoni to stand a siege. The houses round the fort had been razed to the ground and a gallant Rajput named Ratnai left in Command.

On 18th October 1635, the Imperial army appeared before the fort and started siege operations. The fort was surrounded by dense-

1 Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. II, p. 210.

2. According to one account the Bundelas held possession of Gourjhamar fort now in Rehli tahsil, in 1592 A. D.—See Bundelkhand Gazetteer. 1907, p. 19.

3 Abdul Hamid's *Padishahnama*, I-B., p. 95, gives the Gond King's name as Bim (Bhim) Narayan. The Imperial Gazetteer. Vol XVIII, p. 387, has Prem Narayan. For a Gond version of Prem Narayan's death see Chutterton's Story of Gondwana, p. 27.

forests and its north-eastern and southern faces were too steep to allow mining or trenching operations by besiegers. On the western side, where the ground is level, there were ditches 20 cubits deep, close to bamboo thickets under the walls. The garrison fought bravely till midnight and then sent a man to Khan-i-Dauran to beg for quarter. The Mughal Commander decided to enter the fort next morning but a body of Rohillas, who had run the trenches to the edge of the bamboo thicket adjoining the eastern wall, made their way in at once and began to plunder. Khan-i-Dauran soon arrived and tried to restore order in the darkness. The fort was rapidly filling with the victors, when suddenly, a cry arose that enemies still held possession of a bastion. Ali Asghar proposed to attack them immediately, though he was advised against it by Khan-i-Dauran, who considered the undertaking rash in the prevailing turmoil. Disregarding this advice, Ali Asghar and the men under him moved forward and carried the tower by force. While so engaged a spark from the torch of a plunderer ignited a heap of gun powder lying near the southern wall; a dreadful explosion followed, blowing up 80 yards of the enormous thick wall and killing 300 Rajputs standing under the wall along with 200 horses.[1]

The tragic death of Jhujhar Singh, and the atrocities perpetrated by Mughals bred a spirit of rebellion among the people of Bundelkhand. Very soon a capable and energetic leader attracted them to his banner and declared war on the Mughals This was Champat Rai a descendant of Udayjit, ruler of Mahoba whose dynasty had been eclipsed by the dazzling glory of the house of Orchha. He plundered the *mahal* of Dhamoni, which was then the seat of the local Mughal *Faujdar*. His son Chhatrasal, too, waged intermittent wars against the Mughal power. In the begining of his career, he directed his raids mostly against Dhamoni *mahal* which barred the path of his advance towards south-west and against the rich city of Sironj which lay 65 miles west of it. His depredations greatly alarmed Khaliq, the *Faujdar* of Dhamoni, who set up military out-posts in every village and collected a large force to supress the rebels. But the weary Bundela chieftain, instead of making a direct assault, started robbing the country adjacent to Patharia and Dhamoni. He was pursued by his foes and in an encounter that followed in the Sidgavan hills, Chhatrasal is said to have been defeated.[2] The discomfiture, however, failed to scare away the Chhatrasal's troops. They soon resumed their offensive, plundered Chandrapur, and exacted a tribute from the Baghela Raja of Maihar. Soon

1. *Padishahnama*, I-B., pp. 108-10.
2. Bhagwandas Gupta, *Maharaja Chhatrasal Bundela*, p. 42.

Chhatrasal had his full revenge. He defeated his enemies at Rangir, 16 miles south-east of Sagar. Khaliq was wounded but escaped with life leaving behind his banner, drums and guns. The victor sojourned here for some time and then returned to Mau after establishing military out-posts in the region.[1]

Emboldened by this success, Chhatrasal soon reappeared on the scene. This time he was opposed by Kesho Rai, the redoubtable Jagirdar of Bansa. The story is that he challenged Chhatrasal to a duel and in the single combat that ensued the Dangi chief was struck down by an arrow and his head was cut off by the victor.[2] The Bundelas fell on their enemies and soon dispersed them. Chhatrasal was also wounded during this encounter and was forced to reside there for two months, during which he took steps to strengthen his position further in this area. Before returning Chhatrasal showed his magnanimity by restoring Vikramajit, son of Kesho Rai, to the jagir of Bansa and also conferred on him certain titles.[3] After a short interval Chhatrasal again visited Sagar, occupied it by force, and posted there his soldiers with seven guns.[4]

Meanwhile, Khaliq finding it difficult to subdue the formidable rebels requested Bahadur Khan, the Subahdar of Allahabad, for succour. When Aurangzeb came to know of these developments, he ordered Ruhullah Khan against the rebels in April, 1673. Reaching Bundelkhand the Mughal general collected a large force and then marched on Garhakota, 28 miles east of Sagar, where Chhatrasal had encamped. The fighting started in the evening and continued throughout the night. The Bundelas offered stiff resistance, but after a bloody fight, the Mughal forces were broken and driven back with heavy casualities.[5]

The emperor, on hearing it, sternly reprimanded the defeated general and also fined him for lapses. Once more Ruhullah Khan was commanded to lead a campaign against the refractory prince. He came upon the Bundelas at Basia, 10 miles west of Sagar, and soon engaged in battle with bows and match-locks. The Bundelas at once made a bold counter-stroke by attacking the artillery. Accidentally, while a gunner of the Imperial army was supplying gun

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1. Maharaja Chhatrasal Bundela, p. 43.
2. *Ibid*, p. 44. According to *Chhatraprakash* the Dangi chief was struck down by a *sang*, a kind of spear.
3. Gorelal Tiwari, *Bundelkhand Ka Samkshipta Itihas*, pp. 185-86.
4. Maharaja Chhatrasal Bundela, p. 44. Bansa is 16 miles south-west of Sagar in Sagar tahsil.
5. *Ibid*, p. 45.

powder to the artillery men, the powder blew up creating confusion in the Mughal ranks. Taking advantage of this, the Bundelas fell on the hostile army with full force and repulsed it.[1]

Years passed on, and Chhatrasal continued to harass the villages of this district. In November 1680, he raided Khimlasa and Girdhalla.[2] Two years later he occupied Garhakota and made it a base for his depredations against the local authority.[3] Successive Mughal *Faujdars* of Dhamoni vainly tried to curb the exploits of Chhatrasal, and what little success they won proved short-lived. Subsequently, as Aurangzeb became more and more embroiled in the Deccan wars, the local authority grew weaker and Chhatrasal was able to achieve more brilliant triumphs, including the capture of Dhamoni itself between 1688—1696.[4]

We now turn to events in other parts of the district. About the 1689 A. D. Chhatrasal's son Hirde Shah and Jagat Raj drove out Prithvipat, the grandson of Udan Shah Dangi, from Garhpahra, the seat of his ancestral principality. Prithvipat surrendered without resistance, and was permitted to retain a small settlement at Parkota, now a locality in Sagar town. The Bundela authority in this region further increased with the cession of *garhas* of Garhpahra, Damoh Rehli, Etava and Khimlasa by Narendra Shah to Chhatrasal about the same time as the latter conquered Prithvipat. The same ruler handed over to the Mughal emperor the territories of Dhamoni, Garhakota and Shahgarh in order to obtain his recognition. The northern part comprising Khimlasa, Khurai, Garhola and Eran were granted by Aurangzeb in 1695 to a Dangi chief. In about 1727 A.D. Sawai Jai Singh of Amber, while passing through Sagar on his return from pilgrimage, visited Prithvipat and helped him to regain his kingdom. Prithvipat continued to live at Parkota till 1732, when two of his officers betrayed it into the hands of the then Nawab of Kurwai.[5]

It was not till 1732 A.D. that Sagar district passed into the hands of the Marathas The activities of Chhatrasal to expand the Bundela

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1. *Ibid*, p. 46.
2. *Ibid*, p 54. Girdhalla is not found on the map. There is, however, a village called Garhola in 24° 00′N and 78° 25′E, about 12 miles south of Khimlasa in Sagar district.
3. *Ibid*, p. 55.
4. In the course of his conquest of this region Chhatrasal defeated many Muslim commanders, namely, Hashim Khan, Sayyid Khan, Mirza Sadar-ud-din, Hamid Khan, Abdul Samad Khan, Murad Khan (agent of Diler Khan), Tahavvar Khan, Sayyid Latif and Anwar Khan. Several of them were *Faujdars*, of Dhamoni, Mandsaur, Dhar or Mandu in Aurangzeb's closing years, as we know from the Persian records. The details of their struggles are hardly mentioned by Muslim historians, but few events are given in *Chhatraprakash*.
5. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1867, pp. 7-8.

dominion were resented by Mohammad Khan Bangash, the then Mughal *Subahdar* of Allahabad. A strong antipathy arose between the two, often leading to open fights and bloodshed for years. The account of these campaigns does not form the part of the history of this district[1]. It is enough to state that in 1728 Bangash invested Jaitpur, 19 miles west of Mahoba, and after a long and arduous siege succeeded in capturing it, and then Chhatrasal, too, surrendered himself to Bangash. Bundela chief had, however, earlier invoked the help of Bajirao Peshwa, who after the battle of Amjhera, rescued him from this precarious situation. Chhatrasal's appeal was said to have been couched in a Hindi verse recalling a mythological story:

> *"Jo gat Grahgajendra ki so gat bhai he aj, Baji jat*
> *Bundelanki rakho Baji laj"*

> (What befell Gajendra has come to pass now
> The Bundela's honour is being lost Save him O, Bajirao)

In return for this aid Chhatrasal agreed to give Bajirao the tracts of Kalpi, Hatta, Sagar, Jhansi, Sironj, Koonch, Garhakota and Hirdenagar yielding a revenue of 33 lakhs[2]. The disposition made by the Bundela king was carried into effect after a good deal of delay. His two agents Haridas Purohit and Asharam went to Poona to settle the matters connected with the territorial reward given to Bajirao. In the meantime Chhatrasal expired on four December 1731, and his sons agreed to hand over territory worth rupees one and a quarter lakhs each. Next year when Chimnaji Appa reached Bundelkhand he took charge of the assigned districts and appointed Govind Pant Kher, known thereafter as Bundele, to manage new acquisitions. Govind Pant, of whom many stories are current, rose from a very obscure position by dint of personal valour and spirit of adventure[3]. He was, a Karhad Brahman, and was the son of Narsipant Kher, the *Kulkarni* of Barmad in Ratnagiri. He was adopted into the family of Balaji Govind Kher, the *Kulkarni* of the neighbouring village Navaren. On his adoptive father's death, Govind Pant was maltreated by his relations and was forced to go back to his natural family. Afterwards he wandered in search of service, and fortunately became a *Shagird* or personal attendant of Peshwa. Once when Bajirao was unable to obtain food due to non-availability of fuel, Govind Pant

1. For details see Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1878; also W. Irvine, Later Mughals, Vol. II, pp. 230–33.
2. For other details of Chhatrasal's Will see Maharaja Chhatrasal Bundela, pp. 97—101. Local traditions state that he also gave Mastani to his liberator.
3. For details see Jadunath Sarkar, Fall of the Mughal Empire, Vol. II, p. 228, G. S. Sardesai, New History of the Marathas, Vol. II, p. 446.

took some firewood from a burning funeral pyre. Struck by his resourcefulness, the Peshwa promoted him to a military command. He soon made his mark and gradually rose to hold responsible positions under him and in 1733 was asked to look after Bundelkhand. He was killed shortly before the battle of Panipat on 17th December, 1760, being cut off with a small force while engaged in a raid on the supplies of the Afghan army. It is said he was so fat that he was unable to mount his horse without assistance, and was thus prevented from escaping. As a reward for his services Sagar and the surrounding territories were given free of revenue to his descendants, who continued to hold possession until it was ceded to the British.

Being pre-occupied with wars in Bundelkhand and elsewhere, Govind Pant allotted the charge of Sagar and Damoh to his son Balaji Govind, who was assisted by several able officers. They are enumerated as Ramrao Govind, Keshav Shankar Kanhore, Bhikaji Karkare, Ramachandrarao Chandorkar, etc. Balaji, however, did not stay for long at Sagar and subsequently the administration was entrusted to Govind Pant's son-in-law Visaji Chandorkar.

Govindrao died in 1760 and was succeeded by Balaji, who mostly remained at Kalpi and entrusted the management of these tracts to his son Raghunathrao, commonly known as Appa Sahib. In administering these tracts Appaji was assisted by a number of officers, under the superintendence of a certain Moropant, who died in 1797[1]. Thereafter Moropant's son Vishvasrao started managing the affairs of the State.

Meanwhile in 1778 Narhar Shah, the ruler of Gondwana, was deposed by the Saugor ruler in order to make room for the illegitimate aspirant Sumer Shah. Soon after Sumer Shah was imprisoned in Gaurjhamar fort and Narhar Shah was restored. But the latter soon turned against the Maratha detachment, commanded by Moraji which was left to control him. He was incarcerated in Khurai fort and the country was at last, in 1780 A.D., brought under the direct control of the Saugor dynasty. In 1798 Jabalpur and Mandla were ceded by the Peshwa to Raghoji II of Nagpur, who also obtained possession of Dhamoni from a subordinate chief.

In 1799 Sagar was plundered by the Pindari leader Amir Khan, who was then in the pay of Yeshwantrao Holkar An eye-witness account of this tragic event has been given by a certain Khyali Ram,

1. Some of them mentioned in contemporary records are Lakshmi Narayan Bhatt, Krishnaji Majumdar, Ramchandra Krishna, Lakshman Krishna Laghate, Vasudeo Wakankar, Tukoba Prabhu, and Keshav Bhikaji.

who was one of the members of the marauding party[1]. It is said that a "scene of promiscuous and unrestrained pillage continued for the whole period (almost a month) that the army remained near this unfortunate city. We learn from the same authority, that Saugor had been set on fire the day of the storm, and the flames continued to rage in one quarter or another of the town throughout the whole period. Only about four or five hundred of the garrison and inhabitants were killed, but all were ruined; for no property was spared, and the last days were employed in dragging the tanks and wells. to obtain what had been cast into them for the purpose of temporary concealment. Amir Khan is represented to have made repeated efforts to stop the excesses of his troops, which were attended with great loss of reputation as well as of property to himself: but he was mere leader and nothing could exceed the insubordination and insolence of the Pathans, of whom the army almost wholly consisted. When their commander attempted to stop them, they derided him with his former low condition, asking him if he had forgotton who made him a great man, and warning him to beware how he provoked a resentment which would reduce him in a moment to his original insignificance. He supported their insolence. according to narrator of these facts, with a patience little honourable to his character. using no means but the ineffectual one of soothing entreaties to recall them to their duty. Every species of insult and torture was inflicted upon the male and female inhabitants of Saugor".

The Afghan soldiers. when they caught a Brahman or Hindu of high caste, used to feel his head, and examine the skin with great care, to discover by its softness and delicacy, whether he had been leading a luxurious life or one of the labour and, according to the result of this inspection, they liberated their prisoner or proceeded to extremities with him. Amir Khan was driven off by the approach of an army of the Raja of Nagpur, to whom the Saugor ruler had appealed for assistance[2]. The marauders then moved towards Rahatgarh, where they also indulged in plunder Mohammad Khan, son of Murid Khan, was at this time *Subahdar* of Rahatgarh. He made his unwelcome guests a present of five thousand rupees. Two sacks of Saugor by Amir Khan, later the Nawab of Tonk, are mentioned in the historical section of Colonel Maclean's Settlement Report but no detail of it are available.

Raghunathrao died in 1801[3], without heir and his wives Radha Bai and Rukman Bai carried on the administration assisted by their

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1. J. Malcolm, Memoir of Central India, Vol. I, pp. 207—08
2. The Commander of this army was Beni Singh who met a heroic end when the fortress of Gawilgarh was conquered by the Duke of Wellington in 1803.
3 Memoir of Central India, Vol. I, p. 170

agent Vinayakrao. The widows afterwards adopted a son Balwantrao, whose descendants still live at Jabalpur with the title of the Raja of Saugor. Raghunathrao is remembered as a conqueror, as an administrator and as a patron of letters. In his court flourished Padmakar, a Hindi poet well known for his verses on the erotic themes. He was a Telugu Brahmin, whose ancestors had migrated from south some time in the first quarter of the 17th Century. Raghunathrao was once so pleased with his one verse that he is said to have rewarded him rupees one lakh. The particular verse praises the sword of Raghunathrao and is still remembered by the name of '*lakhiya*' by members of his family. It is said that Raghunathrao forbade human sacrifice for the purpose of propitiating gods, but this made him unpopular among the orthodox section of society which was quick to trace the decline of his dynasty to this irreligious act[1].

A contemporary account of his rule has been left by a European traveller who passed through his territory in 1790. 'At this village (Chakah) ends the territory of Ballaji in these parts; his country extends from Calpee on the banks of Jumna, where he himself resides, to thirty miles to the south of the Nerbadda, where he acquired a breadth of two hundred and fifty miles more to the eastward than any other part of his dominions, including the ancient Gonde forts Guna, Mundalah and Gunna Bandhoo. His son, Abhau Sahib (Appa Sahib) resides at Saugor and has the management of southern parts of his father's country'. "They say he is a very debauched young man, and we may well suppose his manners must have more or less a detrimental degree of influence on the country under his charge; however, if we make the flourishing state of the villages we have seen, and the appearance of the inhabitants, a criterion for our judgement, we cannot suppose any material oppression to have existence[2]."

During this period, from 1731 to 1802, Garhakota and Shahgarh remained in the possession of the decendants of Hirde Shah, to whom they were bequeathed by Chhatrasal. After Hirde Shah's death in 1739, his eldest son Sabha Singh succeeded to the *gaddi*. But soon after one of his brothers, Prithviraj, aided by the Marathas, managed to acquire this tract. In 1744 Garhakota became the capital of his principality. Prithviraj was followed by his sons, Kishunju and Hari Singh, in succession. The latter had a religious bent of mind and people were happy under his rule. After his death in 1785 at Benaras, Hari Singh was succeeded by his son Mardan Singh whose

1. *Proceedings, Indian Historical Records Commission*, Vol. XVI, p. 111.
2. *Early European Travellers in the Nagpur Territories*, p. 82.

one great passion was to build palaces still existing in Garhakota and its environs. He refused to pay *chauth* to Raghunathrao, who regarded Garhakota as the special sphere of the influence of Saugor family. Inflamed by his insolent act, Raghunathrao attacked Garhakota with a view to dislodging the Bundela rule. The invading force was checked outside the town by Diwan Zalim Singh, who repulsed them with heavy losses. Appa Sahib sought the aid of the Bhonsala of Nagpur but the latter merely deputed Ali Bahadur to help the contesting parties in reaching a settlement. In 1810 the troops of the Nagpur ruler invested Garhakota and killed its chief Mardan Singh. His son and successor, Arjun Singh requested Sindhia for succour, and in lieu of this, promised to give half of his territories.[1]

Sindhia accepted these terms and despatched an army under Colonel Jean Baptiste, who defeated and put to flight the Nagpur troops and, according to a stipulation, retained possession of Malthone and Garhakota, leaving to Arjun Singh the wild tracts of Shahgarh[2]. He remained at Garhakota for some time as Governor of the fort and the existing village of Karnelgarh[3] is named after him. Arjun Singh returned to Shahgarh, and managed some nine years later to seize Garhakota by a stratagem, but he was ejected by a British force. The Rahatgarh Pargana, which had remained in the possesion of the Bhopal ruler until 1807, also passed into the hands of Sindhia after a protracted siege of seven months.

Meanwhile Lord Hastings had decided to extend the British supermacy over Bundelkhand with the ostensible object of putting down the Pindari menace. With this aim in view, J. Wauchope, Agent of Political Affairs in Bundelkhand, was entrusted with the work of negotiating a settlement with Nana Govindrao of Jalaun, who had all along coveted the Saugor kingdom. The letter of John Adam, then Secretary to Government, dated the 17th October 1814, discloses the designs of the British Government. "The Governor-General proposes to extend to Saugor that protection which the more northernly possessions of Nana Govindrao already received from the British Government and to guarantee in perpetuity the territories of the Nana against the attacks of all foreign states and powers[4]". But things moved fast in a different direction which rendered the execution of this scheme meaningless.

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1. Bundelkhand ka Samkshipta Itihas, pp. 270-71.
2. He was one of the many 'condottiere' of foreign nationality, who served the Indian rulers during the eighteenth century. He commanded five infantry regiments at Gwalior. His 'Kingdom-taking' raid in 1815 is described in Sleeman's Rambles and Recollections of an Indian Official
3. Also called, Ata, is a small village in the Khurai tahsil on the Jhansi road
4. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. III, pp.497 99

In 1818, on the deposition of the Peshwa, the districts of Saugor and Damoh were ceded to the British. But it was not till March that this part of country was actually occupied by British. and even then only after they had overcome resistance offered by Vinayakrao and other petty chiefs. In September-October 1817 the Governor-General's Agent in Bundelkhand, called upon Vinayakrao to fulfill feudal obligations by paying tributes and furnishing 660 horse to the British Army[1]. Vinayakrao demurred and finally refused to comply with these peremptory demands. On this his state was forfeited and General Marshall, was ordered to march on Sagar, where he reached on 6th March. Faced with the grim prospects of fight, Vinayakrao surrendered the fort of Sagar on 11th March 1818, after having asked for one day's extension to make arrangements for the widows of the late ruler[2] On 10th March 1818, British had issued a proclamation assuring people of Sagar. The proclamation read:

"To all the *Chaudharies*, Kanungoes, Zamindars and other inhabitants of the country of Saugor".

> 'Whereas the country of Saugor having come into the possession of the British, the Superintendent of Political Affairs hereby proclaims to the inhabitants of all classes that they will hereafter be governed by those established principles of Justice, and indulgence which ever regulate the conduct of the British Government towards its subjects. They will be effectively protected against those destructive merciless cruelties and depredations by foreign plunderers to which they have hitherto been exposed. The rights and property of all will be secured and protected and their religious temples and worship will be scrupulously preserved and respected.'[3]

Subsequent to surrender Vinayakrao, Radha Bai and Rukman Bai and his officers were given pensions aggregating two and a half lakhs of rupees. Vinayakrao's descendants still live at Sagar.

It would be interesting to describe how British established control over the remaining parts of the district. In order to consolidate their position British officers, commanding a battalion each, moved in different directions. Major Lamb marched, on the 13th March, to the west and succeeded in capturing the forts of Rehli, Jaisinghnagar, Eran, Khurai and Khimlasa. Major Rose, on the same day, took an eastern route and occupied the fort of Sanoda. After this arrangement, and providing for the defence of Sagar, General Marshall proceeded, on the 15th March, in the direction of

1. Jubbulpore Division Records, 1818, Vol. 104, p. 7.
2. *Ibid.* pp. 25—27.
3. *Ibid.* pp. 31—32.

Dhamoni and having crossed the Moar nullah on the 18th, he reached on the next day in the vicinity of the place. The *Killedar*, Pahalwan Singh, having received orders from Appa Sahib Bhonsla, refused to surrender on the ground that the garrison was in arrears of pay of two and a half years[1]. What followed is described by Blackers in the official history. "The interval till the 23rd, was employed in collecting materials for the siege; and on the same day, in consequence of a close reconnoissance, the place was completely invested by the establishment in the town, on the west side, of the 2nd battalion of the 28th regiment, and on the remaining two sides of Scindiah's contingent. The south face was selected for the attack; as on that side a ridge offered a commanding situation, within four hundred yards, for the principal batteries, and cover for the mortars and covering party. A battery was, accordingly, constructed in the assigned place, on the night of the 23rd, and next morning, two twenty-four pounders, and four eighteen pounders, opened on the south-west bastion to enfilade the western face. To these were added, against the eastern defences, the fire of a brass twelve pounder, and two five-and-a-half-inch howitzers, from a position more to the right, and the occasional discharge of mortars from the rear. Six hours of incessant firing induced the killedar to surrender unconditionally."[2] The soldiers were discharged after leaving their arms and executing an engagement that they would never fight against the British Government[3].

Just about this time Appa Sahib Bhonsla escaped from the custody of his captors. In his crusade against the British, he received much support from the people of this region. We are told that one of the influential Gond Jagirdar of Sagar, was in correspondence with him. On 31st August 1818, J. H. Maddock, Assistant to the Governor-General writing to Brigadier-General Watson, commanding a division in Sagar, says;

> "I have already been given to understand that one of the Goand Chiefs who is a Jagirdar of Saugor has been in treasonable communication with Appa Sahib, it seems more likely that the arrival of an emissary of his to sound the minds of the late Government of Saugor or of other Jagirdars has given rise to the conversations which were overheard by the two persons whose depositions were taken down then that any night attack

1. *Ibid*, pp. 35—38.
2. Valentine Blacker, Memoir of the Operations of the British Army in India during the Mahratta War of 1817, 1818 and 1819, pp. 335-36
3. Jubbulpore Division Records, 1818, Vol. 104, pp. 50—60.

for the object of plunder has been meditated on the town of Sagar[1]. In addition to this there is further evidence that the land holding classes of Sagar seethed with discontent[2].

It is curious to reflect that one of the important administrative measures undertaken by the British after they had taken over Sagar district and neighbouring areas directly contributed to an increase of discontent and an eruption of large scale revolt in these areas. This was the revenue settlement undertaken in the district under which the land revenue was assessed so high and the levy demanded was so exhorbitant that they led to the rapid impoverishment of the people. Col. J. N. H. Maclean, who conducted the settlement of 1867, referred to the burden of the earlier levy and described how "the widespread misery and distress throughout this division of the district must be seen to be appreciated, especially at Dhamonee and Benaika Patun. The impression conveyed to me on inspecting these tracts was that the pargunnahs were dead, so vast was the desolation and so scarce the signs of life or of human beings[3]." Attempts at bringing about some relief of the burden proved futile as much due to niggardliness of the relief proposed as by the tardiness of local authorities in carrying out even the concessions so hesitatingly given. The British Government in London appeared to have been impressed with the sad state of affairs in Sagar district, for their comment on Col Maclean's Report was that "even in a stronger degree than former reports from the same quarter of India, this report gives evidence of the evils committed by over assessment since the district came under British Government..[4]" There is no doubt that the harassment and heavy burden of taxation that fell upon the landlords in this area, and often resulting in their dispossession of landed property, contributed in a large measure to the 1842 rising in this region.

Col. Sleeman records an interesting incident during the visit of Lord William Bentinck to this region in 1832-33[5]. During his journey from Bahrol to Dhamoni he saw a large number of memorials erected in honour of the women who had committed *sati* on the funeral pyre of their husbands The significance of this sad custom appears to have made a deep impact on the mind of the Governor-General.

1. Adventures of Appa Sahib, 1818—46, p. 67.
2. Jubbulpore Division Records, 1818, Vol. 104, pp. 173—75.
3. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Saugor District, 1867, p. 24.
4. Quoted in Romesh Dutt's Economic History of India, Vol. II, p. 220.
5. Sleeman, Rambles and Recollections of an Indian official, pp. 109-110.

When his predecessor, Lord Amherst, had contemplated the abolition of this evil and had consulted the views of the seven district officers of the Saugor Nerbudda Territories, they had all expressed themselves against the reform and it was left to Lord William Bentinck to defy their views and enforce the reform.

In any account of the events relating to Sagar district special mention should be made of the measures taken to exterminate the Thug menace, not only because the Commissioner for the Suppression of Thuggee, Col. Sleeman, was posted at Sagar, but because the depredations of the Thugs were of frequent occurance in these parts. In a letter addressed to the Judicial Department, dated 25th April 1831, F.C. Smith says—

> "Murders by Thugs have increased, but no dependence can be placed on police reports as to the numbers actually killed by these people. We can indicate the number ascertained by the police to have been discovered, but can have no clues to find out those murdered, buried, but not hitherto discovered. In proof there of Captain Sleeman discovered at Silada in the Saugor district 25 bodies of murdered travellers under the very ropes of his tent last January in every state of decomposition, who had been way laid, robbed, murdered and buried without discovery, by a gang of Thugs in connection with Feringea Sardar Thugs, the persons through whose instrumentality the horried discovery was made. It occasioned at the time a great sensation in the district and has given much alarm to the peaceable inhabitants."[1]

Sleeman's unequalled experience in this region marked him out as the most suitable man for exterminating this evil. He was appointed Superintendent of the Operations in 1835 at Sagar, and subsequently Commissioner for the Suppression of Thuggee and Dacoity in 1839. During this period more than 1,400 Thugs were hanged and transported for life, one of whom confessed to having committed over 700 murders.

Meanwhile the first eruption, caused by the political, social, and economic unsettlement that had taken place among the dispossessed landlords and chieftains of Saugor Nerbudda Territories, known as the Bundela Rising occurred in 1842. The causes of this violent outbreak are not far to seek. The owners of land in Sagar were mainly Gond, Lodhi and Bundela Rajputs, who enjoyed considerable freedom under the Peshwas. The process of settlement in the district had resulted in the dispossession of long-standing malguzars,

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1 Sleeman's Correspondence, 1831, p. 591 (Preserved in Madhya Pradesh Records Office, Nagpur).

some of whom were suspected of hostile intent while others had defaulted in their payments. Against those who had fallen in arrears, legal action was taken and after much harassment they were deprived of their lands and property. Partly for this reason and partly from an awareness of the British disaster in Afghanistan, the Bundelas broke out in open rebellion[1]. It started with two Bundela Thakurs in the north of Sagar, Jawahir Singh of Chandrapur, and Madhukar Shah and Ganeshju of Narhut, who were served with decrees of the civil court of Sagar early in 1842.[2] Their answer to it was to defy the order and attack the police, some of whom were killed. They were joined by a large number of discontented landlords in the region north of the Narmada. They raided the police outposts and plundered towns of Khimlasa, Khurai, Nariaoli, Dhamoni and Sagar. Delan Shah, a Gond chief of Narsimhapur, appeared on the scene and raided Deori and the adjacent tracts of Narsimhapur. For about a year the entire region was in turmoil, but with the capture of Hirde Shah the movement received a major setback. Captain Wakeman succeeded in capturing Madhukar Shah of Narhut, who was publicly executed and his body burnt behind the Sagar jail[3]. By April 1843 the disturbances practically ended. The different Bundela Chieftains, who had been acting in isolation, failed to achieve success against the well equipped and ably led British forces. The spirit of rebellion was simply scotched, but not killed. When, in the same year, the Gwalior Durbar commenced those hostilities against the British which culminated in the battle of Maharajpur, the chiefs and people of this region, who had long historic ties with Sindhia, again broke out in Sympathetic rebellion[4]. This, too, was soon suppressed,.

Here it would be useful to examine the consequences that flowed from the Bundela Rising of 1842. It did lead to agricultural depression, and in 1845, it was found necessary to give a general reduction of ten per cent of the revenue throughout the district. In the political and administrative spheres, the Bundela episode produced far-reaching repercussions. Lord Ellenborough, who throughout his life, showed a marked detestation of proved abuses, inaugurated the newly gained peace by making a clean sweep of the British officials in Saugor Nerbudda Territories which were placed under an Agent to the Governor-General. The arrangement, however, did not work well

1. Quoted in the History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh, p. 34
2. Jubbulpore Division Records, 1842-44. Vol. 152. p 1.
3. After his execution Mudhukar Shah became a hero of songs and legends in this region At the place where his body was cremated a *chabutara* has been raised and the people look upon this monument with great reverence. They are said to be cured of fever by making vows at the shrine
4. Kaye and Malleson, History of the Indian Mutiny, Vol. v, p. 60

and the area was again joined with the North Western Provinces in 1852 with which they were administered until the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861.

The years that followed the suppression of the Bundela rising were years of smouldering discontent which ultimately burst into the flames of 1857. Sagar district had been suffering from bad harvests for a succession of years. The wheat harvest failed in 1854, 1855 and in 1856. The imposition of the salt customs had been intensely disliked by the people everywhere. One of the British officers imprisoned at Lalitpur during the 1857 Movement stated how the people of the Banpur, Tehri and Shahgarh states in the present Sagar district were bitterly hostile to the Salt Department[1]. The first signs of the troubles ahead occurred a few months before the revolt actually broke out. Erskine describes how as early as in January 1857 small *Chapatties* were sent round in a mysterious way from village to village in Sagar and other districts[2]. They were intended to be a message and a warning of the impending uprising so that the people might be prepared for it. In April excited letters from the regiments in Bengal reached the Sagar Regiments alleged that the new greased cartridges were designed to offend their religion. Early in May, stories were current in Sagar that ghee, atta and Sugar had been adulterated by the Government orders with pig's and cow's blood and bone dust[3].

On 17th May the news of events in Meerut-Delhi area reached Sagar but nothing occurred till the end of month. Then followed news of stirring events in Jhansi on 8th June and with it came the report that Banpur Raja had surrounded Lalitpur station with a large body of men.

Just about this time Raja Bakhtabali of Shahgarh, whose principality lay within Damoh and Sagar districts, started raising soldiers with the intention of making war on the British Affairs were in this position, when the Deputy Commissioner of Chanderi asked succour for the relief of Lalitpur, and on 13th June, a detachment was sent from Sagar under Major Gaussen. Four sepoys tried to prevent its march, but they were arrested and sent to Hoshangabad. When this relieving force reached Malthone, 40 miles from Sagar on the Jhansi road, Major Gaussen found the northern passes held by

1. The Revolt in Central India, 1857-59, p. 24
2. Erskine, Narrative of Events attending the Out-break of disturbances and the Restoration of Authority in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories in 1857-58, para. 5.
3. *Ibid*, paras 6 and 8.

Bundela insurgents. Finding that rebels had taken possession of the Balabehat fort, and that it was difficult to dislodge them, he sent a message to Sagar for reinforcements. Brigadier Sage replied promptly sending three hundred and fifty infantry and fifty cavalry. The night previous to the day on which these men set out, great alarm prevailed in Sagar, and it seemed as though mutiny might break out at any moment, but nothing actually occurred.

The detachment started in the morning of 19th June, and joined Major Gaussen on the 23rd. The combined forces stormed the fort of Balabehat and took sixteen of the garrision prisoners. Letters passed between Raja Mardan Singh of Banpur and the sepoys in Major Gaussen's detachment in which the former praised the act of the sepoys in resisting any interference with their religion and promising that the Bundela Thakurs would support the sepoys. On 25th June, the sepoys broke out into open defiance, and surrounding Major Gaussen in a threatening manner, demanded the release of the prisoners. He was forced to let go the prisoners, but was not molested further and subsequently returned to Sagar[1]. The rebel sepoys went over to Banpur Raja who had promised them a Pay of twelve rupees per month provided they deserted with arms and ammunitions. Meanwhile the British Officers, imprisoned at Lalitpur, were released by Mardan Singh and permitted to go to Sagar, but on their way, they were again seized by Raja of Shahgarh. After keeping them for three months they were allowed to proceed to Sagar where they reached in the most exhausted condition.[2]

The position in Sagar meanwhile, was causing anxiety. Disturbances were daily increasing in the north where Thakurs of Narhut and others had become very active. Fearing trouble from them Brigadier Sage who commanded the Brigade at Sagar resolved, to occupy the old fort.[3] This old Bundela stronghold built on a rock commanding the town by which it was surrounded on three sides, was being used as an arsenal since 1818. Sage saw that, if this fort fell in the hands of rebels, his position would become precarious. Accordingly on 29th June under cover of fictitious orders

1. For details see Erskine's Narrative paras 21-26, 40-47; The Revolt in *Central India, 1857-59*, p. 34.
2. The twelve prisoners were moved to the *garhi* of Baraitha on 29th July 1857, and were given merely one anna a day each for food. On the 12th September they left Baraitha and reached Sagar after two days, the Raja being forced to set them free by the threat posed by Col Millar's Nagpur Movable Column. See Erskine's Narrative, para. 47.
3. The brigade stationed in Sagar before the outbreak had one company of European Bengal Artillery, 3rd Irregular Cavalry, 31st Bengal infantry, and 42nd Bengal Infantry. For reasons compelling Brigadier Sage to move into the fort see his statement in Charles Ball's History of the Indian Mutiny, Vol. I, pp. 562-64.

for all troops to march to Malthone, he managed to move the European artillery men along with the treasure into the fort.

The expected uprising came on the morning of 1st July, when the whole of the 3rd Irregular Cavalry, with the exception of a few Indian officers and fifty sowers, rose in revolt. Sheikh Ramzan, the senior Subahdar of the 42nd Infantry, raised the flag of revolt after sharpening his sword at the mosque and called his followers by the beat of drum. He was joined by the entire 42nd, by a few of the 31st and by all the sepoys of the 3rd cavalry. The mutineers, aided by residents of Sadar bazar, commenced plundering residences of officers. Next day some rebels went towards Damoh while the remaining forces declared Sheikh Ramzan as their 'General'. He seized the large saluting gun of Artillery Hill and brought it down to the Quarter-Guard of the 42nd which was made his headquarters[1].

On 7th July, fighting ensued between followers of Sheikh Ramzan and the sepoys of 31st which had remained aloof, and in the midst of it, forty of the latter joined the insurgents. The belligerents kept up musket fire for two days, but when the night approached on 8th, the rebels left Sagar in haste along with a signal gun and commissariat elephants.

Towards the end of July 1857, the entire district passed into the hands of rebels. The stronghold of Rahatgarh, situated on the spur of a long high hill was occupied by Adil Muhammad Khan and Fazil Muhammad Khan, the Nawabs of Ambapani, who unhesitatingly cast their lot with the rebels to recover his rightful possessions. The Shahzada of Mandsaur and other notable leaders had also assembled in this place[2] Twenty-five miles to the east of Sagar stood, on an elevated angle of ground, the strong fort Garhakota which was seized by Shahgarh troops. They also attacked Binaika which was left to the care of Thakur of Patan. Major Legard encountered them on 21st July but he had to return due to stiff opposition.[3] Rehli was also exposed to attacks but Lt. Dickens, assisted by Girdhari Naik, managed to hold it till the arrival of the Central India Force[4] Meanwhile the Rajas of Banpur and Shahgarh sent emissaries to all the petty chiefs in this region urging them to join the revolt. In response to this many rose in Sagar and Damoh districts. The names of rebels connected with the Sagar rising were Jungah Singh, Bulbhudar Singh, taluqdar of Sohagpur, Lachman

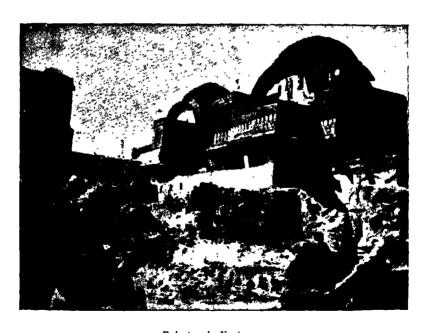
1. Erskine's Narrative, paras. 58—67.
2. For details see Freedom Struggle in U P., Vol. II, Appendix C.
3. Erskine's 'Narrative', para. 116.
4. The Revolt in Central India, pp 44 45; and Erskine's Narrative, paras 242, 307.

Singh, the brother of the Raja of Shahgarh, and Nawab Kandar Khan Pindari[1]. The most famous of Sagar rebels was Daulat Singh for whose apprehension a reward of rupees one thousand was offered by the government[2]. The Raja of Banpur attacked and seized the tahsil and police station of Khurai, while the troops of the Raja of Shahgarh attacked and took Binaika which was then the headquarters of a tahsil. Thus by the end of August the entire tract, with the exception of Sagar fort, was in revolt, police stations were deserted, malguzars forced to join the rebels and daks and all communications were closed[3]. On the 15th September Mardan Singh even repulsed a force commanded by Lt. Col. Dalyell in which the loss of the attacking party was severe[4].

It now remains only to tell briefly the counter offensive launched by the British to quell the disturbances in Sagar district. It started in earnest with the arrival of Sir Hugh Rose at Rahatgarh on the morning of 24th January 1858, after receiving about eight hundred levies at Bhopal. He at once started action against the rebels posted on the suburbs of the town, and on the banks of the river Bina. The sepoys fell back on the town from where they sallied forth to harass the camp followers, and on the 25th night attacked the Bhopal troops. Early next morning, the British cavalry moved forward into the adjoining jungle. When they had made their way well into the wild growth, they suddenly found themselves in the midst of fire started by the enemies. Thomas Lowe, the Medical Officer, attached to the Corps of Madras Sappers and Miners, described the perilous position thus: "The jungle grass before, behind, and on both sides of us was in a blaze". What with the heat of the sun and the fire we were pretty nearly roasted. The guide had lost the path so we halted: the order to 'right about face' was given and by-and-bye we came upon the track."[5]

Meanwhile the remaining forces captured the town and this enabled Brigadier Stuart to set up batteries against the fort. These batteries kept, night and day for two days, a steady fire on the line

1. Further Papers relative to the Mutinies in the East Indies presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, Vol VI, p. 193, Vol IX, pp. 614, 850.
2. S. B Chaudhari, Civil Rebellion in the Indian Mutinies, pp. 223-24
3. Erskine's Narrative, para. 142
4. The name, as given in Erskine's Narrative, para 217, is Col Dalzell. He was killed in the operations round Nariaoli on 18 September 1857. See O. S. Crofton, Lists of Inscriptions of Tombs and Monuments in Central Provinces and Berar, p. 72.
5. Thomas Lowe, Central India During the Rebellion of 1857 and 1858, p. 175

General view of Garhpahra Fort

Rahatgarh Fort.

of defences and buildings in the fort. While cannonading its outer ramparts, the British were attacked by the Banpur Raja in the rear. He came on with great boldness, his standards flying, and his men singing their national hymns. But the action did not succeed, and the Banpur men retreated. The besieged had counted much on the relief, and its failure so disheartened them that they left the fort in the night by a perilous path.[1] The most amazing thing was to see the place from whence they had escaped. To look down the precipitous path made one giddy,—and yet down this place, where no possible footing could be seen, they had all gone—men and women—in the dead of the night. One or two mangled bodies lay at the bottom, attesting the difficulty of the descent. Nothing but despair could have tempted them to have chosen such a way[2]. On the 30th the fort was occupied.

The rebels made their next stand at Barodia, about 12 miles to the north-west of Rahatgarh on the left bank of the river. The little fort was defended by a band of Afghans and Pathans with remarkable courage "several of them, even when dying, springing from the ground and inflicting mortal wounds with their broad swords[3]." After their ablest military leader had been killed and the Raja of Banpur wounded, the place was evacuated. On 3rd February 1858 Sir Rose reached before Sagar, which had remained beleaguered for nearly eight months. The welcome given to him here was not unmixed. Lowe observes: "In some of the streets there were a good many sullen, diabolical looking fellows, who seemed to wish us any where else[4]." The district, however, was continued to be menaced by a large number of rebels who were in possession of outlying places and forts at Sanoda and Garhakota. Sir Hugh sent a force to destroy the fort of Sanoda on 8th, and on the 9th February himself marched on Garhakota.[5] The Garhakota fort was closely invested, and after few hotly-contested skirmishes, he succeeded in reducing it.[6] In quick succession Nariaoli and Khurai were reoccupied but Malthone, Patan and Dahmoni were still held by Banpur and Shahgarh rebels.[7] On 27th the Column resumed its march towards Jhansi. At the same time rockets were seen shooting up from the town. This was intended to warn the

1. For details regarding the siege of Rahatgarh see Calcutta Review, Vol XLI, 1865, p 182; J. S. Sylvester, Recollections of the Campaign in Malwa and Central India, pp 55-60.
2. Central India During the Rebellion of 1857 and 1858, p. 182.
3. Forest, History of the Indian Mutiny, Vol. III, pp 161-62.
4. Central India During the Rebellion of 1857 and 1858, pp 186-87.
5. The Revolt in Central India, p. 95.
6. *Ibid*, pp. 95-97.
7. Erskine's Narrative, para. 372.

rebels in the mountains to be on the alert.[1] Next day Sir Hugh captured a fort called Barodia, 32 miles north of Sagar on Jhansi road, in which he left a garrison to keep up his communications with Sagar. Then he made a feint against the Raja of Banpur who guarded Narhut pass with 8,000 or 10,000 armed men. "Immediately afterwards a succession of sharp reports resounded from the heights on either side The roar of artillery reverberated from the distant gorge; and the glen was over-clouded with smoke. The British artillery pushed forward to reply, while two regiments of infantry swarmed up the steep rocks on the left Still the rebels held their ground Bullets fell so fast and so thick among the British gunners that they were actually obliged to withdraw the guns some way. Sir Hugh himself had his horse shot under him.[2]" At last more guns were brought up, and the rebels unable to face the infantry charge scattered over the hills and through the gorge. With this victory ended the last vestiges of popular revolt in Sagar district It not only cut the rebel line spread from Jhansi to Narmada but also ensured quick communications so essential for further triumphs of the British arms

Of the various results that flowed from the collapse of this popular revolt, we may examine only those that affected life in this district. For the people in this tract, the aftermath of rebellion was a case of the scorpions of Rehoboam following the whips of Solomon It set a stage for a period of high-handed and repressive rule. The Deputy Commissioner of Sagar prepared a list of families which had been thought to be guilty of revolt Every village was surveyed and names of persons recorded whose guilt or innocence was never carefully scrutinised After this the people were indiscriminately evicted from their ancestral possessions. The disturbances also created unsettlement in rural areas and the following extract provides an indication of its extent in Eran pargana.

> "This tract suffered very severely during the mutiny; many cultivators leaving their homes altogether and many malguzars being looted and ruined: while a few were shot. The rebels established a post at Eran itself and very few villages escaped the evil effects of the anarchy which prevailed for some time. The whole neighbourhood became denuded of capital and impoverished; the only people who escaped being the few rich absentee landowners who had obtained villages owing to the

1. Central India During the Rebellion of 1857 and 1858, pp. 205-06.
2. Rice Holmes, A History of the Indian Mutiny, p. 508

poverty and bankruptcy of the old malguzars previous to the times of the mutiny".[1]

Post 1857 Period.

The suppression of the revolt and the re-establishment of normal administration in Sagar district dragged on till about the middle of 1858. One noteworthy out-come of the revolt in the Saugor Nerbudda Territories was that it led to a realignment of the administration of this area. Ever since these territories were taken over from the Peshwas and the Bhonslas, their administrative arrangements had been frequently changing, shifting back and forth between the North-Western Provinces and direct administration under the Supreme Government. It was now finally decided to attach these areas to the Nagpur Territory which had been annexed by Lord Dalhousie on the plea that there were no direct heirs. This became the nucleus of the Central Provinces which was formed by a resolution dated the 2nd November 1861. The Saugor Nerbudda Territories thus formed a part of the Central Provinces, and they so remained until the reorganisation of States in 1956.

As pointed out earlier, the early administration of the Saugor Nerbudda Territories was defective and weighted heavily upon the people. The long term settlement which followed the short settlements failed to bring any relief to the depressed peasantry. After the formation of the Central Provinces, proposals for the extension of a permanent settlement of the newly formed provinces were considered.

The proclamation conferring the proprietory rights upon the revenue payers, issued by the Government of North-West Provinces when the Saugor Nerbudda Territories formed part of the province was after-wards accepted by the Government of the Central Provinces. This however, did not help in any way to ameliorate the condition of the peasantry which ultimately resulted in periodical scourage of famine sweeping the country since 1860. Sagar district, too had as its share the curse of the repeated famines of 1877, 1892, 1897, 1898-99 and 1900.

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1. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Sagar District, 1887—1897, p. 5. The district records also contain an eye-witness account of the economic distress :

"Money was scarce. The pay of Government servants was reduced by 30 per cent. Loans were raised from the residents. Some paid willingly, some refused but paid under pressure. Notes for one rupee, two rupees and five rupees, redeemable after the restoration, were lithographed at the press, at the school and issued in payment for supplies and as pay of officials. They passed current at full value". Takhat Singh, retired Head Clerk, Sagar, Case File No. 42, 1933.

A large part of the later history of these parts, as indeed of the country as a whole, concerns the birth and enlargement of the political awakening. This was, in no small measure, assisted by a note of strident severity that characterised the administration in the years following the suppression of the 1857 rising. An interesting instance of this new arrogance was reported from Sagar by the *Nyaya Sudha* in its issue of the 17th February 1893. It described how at a meeting of the Sagar Municipality the Head Clerk who happened to enter the room with his shoes on was sternly reprimanded by the Commissioner who was presiding over the meeting. The Commissioner turned furiously to the Secretary asking, why the clerk had not left his shoes outside, and staring at the humbled and retreating figure of the Head clerk he shouted that if he ever again dared to enter his room with his shoes on he would be thrashed on his head with the same shoes.

Though the foundation of the Indian National Congress in 1885 is generally taken as the date from which organised national conciousness began to grow in the country, the rise of national awareness in Sagar district could be traced to an earlier period when the Hitakarani Sabha was formed in Sagar in 1874. This organization, which was later named Hita Sabha, ran a printing press, issued literature, carried on social and constructive activities among the people and contributed to create an awakening among the masses. Sagar district was thus ready to react quickly to the waves of national movements that swept through the rest of the country. During the anti-partition agitation in Bengal, Asvini Kumar Datta, a terrorist leader, visited Sagar in 1907, and the Government at the time complained that there was evidence that the Bengal agitators attempted to establish connection with the Maratha Brahmins of Sagar. But the organised political movement may be said to have taken root in Sagar district when in May 1907 Dada Saheb Khaparde and Dr. Moonje visited the district and a branch of the extremist wing of the Congress, associated with the leadership of Lokmanya Tilak, was established at Sagar. At the same time, in the wake of the anti-partition movement in Bengal, the cult of Swadeshi and the boycott of foreign goods spread in the district. This led to the arrest of some of the political workers at Sagar and Deori, who were doing propaganda for boycotting the foreign goods. When the Home Rule League, founded by Annie Besant, took up the cause of India's freedom a branch of the League was established at Sagar in 1916. Dr. Hari Singh Gour of Sagar was the President of the Provincial branch of the Home Rule League at Nagpur and Dr. Moonje was its Secretary.

Next few years were the period of growing tension between the Government and the masses during which the Congress made vigorous efforts to bring about a mass awakening through political conferences. The conferences held at different places by turn helped to transform the political struggle in the Central Provinces from a middle class movement to a mass movement. An incident that served as a pointer to the political awakening in the district was the Ratauna slaughter-house movement of 1920. A slaughter -house had been established by the St. David Port Company at Ratauna, eight miles to the west of Sagar, which obtained a license for slaughtering as many as 1,400 cattle per day. A vigorous propaganda through the local and provincial press was launched immediately to stop the mass slaying of cattle but it proved to be of no avail. A committee was, therefore, established to organise the movement extensively. In the prolonged struggle that followed, the Provincial Government was forced to order the closure of the Ratauna slaughter—house along with those at Rahatgarh and Damoh. This incident which was the first successful achievement of a mass movement against the authorities in the province served as a stimulating factor in the political life of the State The new mood was best reflected in the meeting of the newly formed C. P Provincial Congress Committee which met at Sagar on 27th November 1921 under the presidentship of Dr. Raghavendra Rao. The committee adopted a resolution to organise in every district of the province the newly discovered weapon of Satyagraha which the Congress had decided to implement during its Nagpur session of 1920. Able leaders came forward in Saugor, as in other districts, to wield this new weapon with remarkable effect. The District Political Conference met shortly to chalk out the plan of future course of action. In the same year, branches of Hindu Sabha and Gandhi Seva Sangh were started at Sagar.

Another issue which caused considerable Political stir throughout the Central Provinces and Berar was known as Flag Satyagraha. It was touched off by an order of the Provincial Government prohibiting the display of the national flag by Municipal committees. The challenge was taken up by Jabalpur Municipal Committee, and soon the centre of this agitation shifted to Nagpur. The Sagar Municipal Committee which met on 10th April 1923, passed a resolution protesting against the Government order and thanking the members of the Jabalpur Municipal Committee for initiating the Flag Satyagraha. A batch of Satyagrahis were sent to Nagpur from Sagar to take part in the struggle where they were arrested and later-on released after the successful termination of the Satyagraha on 18th August 1923.

In the year 1925 the Tanzim Committee, a Muslim organization of considerable political influence, was founded at Sagar. Next year, Kisan Sabha was founded under the influence of the Congress socialists. The same year Lala Lajpat Rai visited Sagar in connection with his extensive tour for political propaganda.

The year 1929 was crucial period of preparation for an organised mass Civil Disobedience which was inaugurated by Mahatma Gandhi's historic 'Dandi March' for breaking the Salt law on 6th April 1930. In addition to the breaking of salt laws at mass meetings, the new weapon of Forest Satyagraha was launched in the Central Provinces. The Forest Satyagraha gained momentum rapidly in Sagar district and consisted in the organised breaking of Forest laws, which were felt to be iniquitous. The movement was carried out vigorously at various places in Sagar district, especially at Ramna, Rahatgarh and Khurai. The Government came down heavily with repressive measures and mass arrests. The Preventive Intimidation Ordinance was promulgated in Sagar town and the Cantonment on October 1930 to prevent school boys from taking part in the agitation. Since this proved to be of no avail to check the activities of the Youth League, the local high schools were closed down temporarily. The local District Council which had started taking part in organising the Civil Disobedience Movement was punished by the withholding of grant-in-aid. Police clashed with the mob at various places of the district. During July-August, the mob assaulted and stoned the police party on several occasions at Sagar and Khurai while the Satyagrahis were being escorted by them to the jails.

During the 1930 Civil Disobedience Movement, Sagar district was also infiltrated by the activities of the Hindustan Socialist Republican Army. Their red posters for recruitment were found in circulation in the Sagar-Jabalpur tract in 1929 A cell of the Republican Army was established in Sagar which was said to receive regular supply of arms and explosives from outside the province. On the morning of 9th August 1931, a purcussion bomb was exploded in the compound of the local high school without injuring anybody[1].

With the calling off of the Civil Disobedience Movement following the conclusion of the Gandhi-Irwin Pact on 5th March 1931, the movement in the district, too, was stopped. The same year three political conferences were held at Sagar, *viz.*, the Mahakoshal Politi-

1. A compilation of Important Political Trials in C. P. and Berar, 1935, p. 6.

cal Conference, the Mahakoshal Women's Conference and the Mahakoshal Navajavan Bharat Sabha. Nasir-ul-Islam, a new Muslim organisation, was also founded in the same year.

Peace in the district, however, did not last long since the second Civil Disobedience was resumed soon after the re-arrest of Gandhiji on 4th January 1932 on his return from the Round Table Conference in England which had proved a failure. The Sagar district Political Conference met in June 1932 to chalk out the future course of action. The Government, on the other hand, was ready with punitive measures in the shape of the new special ordinances which were promptly promulgated. The Unlawful Association Ordinance (IV of 1932) was applied at Sagar and in nine other districts of C.P. The Mahakoshal Congress Committee was declared illegal and same was the fate of the District Congress Committee of Sagar. Under the Unlawful Instigation Ordinance of 1932 (III of 1932) Sagar district was declared as Notified area. The Special Power ordinance of 1932 (X of 1932) and the Prevention of Molestation and Bycotting Ordinances followed next Processions and violation of Forest laws, which became almost a regular feature, were ruthlessly suppressed by lathi charges, mass arrests and other means.

The newly started political organizations of the district which took part in the second Civil Disobedience Movement were the Harijan Sewak Sangh and Bhim Akhada of Sagar and the Achhutodhar Society of Garhakota. In 1934 Mahatma Gandhi visited Deori, Anantapura, Garhakota and Sagar in the course of his ten months Harijan tour which he had commenced in November 1933 from his new abode at Sevagram. In the following year, the newly formed Congress Socialist Party established a branch in Sagar district and gave to the political life in the district a new direction.

The next few years were a period of lull in the political life of the district, until a grave challenge presented itself following the resignation of the first Congress Ministry in the province in response to the call from the All-India Congress Committee as a protest against the British policy towards India when the Second World War broke out in 1939.

Sagar which had always been sensitive to the political movements that swept the country, reacted to the swift turn of events set in motion by Acharya Vinoba Bhave's Individual Satyagraha on 17th October 1942 at Paunar. Events moved rapidly to a crisis and the final clash came immediately after the passing of the 'Quit India' resolution at the Congress session of Bombay on 8th August

1942. Political situation in the district worsened rapidly from 9th August onwards. Hartals, meetings and processions became almost a regular feature. The role of students and women who took part in the 1942 movement of the district was particularly conspicuous. The Provincial Government complained that at Sagar procession and picketing by women became a daily occurrence. Students who used to take out processions at Sagar and other places in the district were almost regularly lathi charged for several days following the 14th August. On 24th August 1942, police opened fire at Garhakota on a mob gathered in front of the police station resulting in the death of a school boy. At several places in the district forest Satyagraha was carried out which resulted in violent repression. Riots took place at several places which led to the burning of post offices, police out-posts and timber depots.

Repression stalked the district with a ruthless hand. The Sagar Nagar Congress Committee and the District Congress Committee were banned and their offices were searched and seized. Houses of local leaders were also searched at Sagar and other places. Collective fines were imposed at the places where attempts were made to damage the government and public property. Though no major incidents occurred since then, political unrest smouldered in the region in a sullen manner all through the years of the War. It was only after the termination of the War and the release of the political prisoners that political activity once again began to stir in the district, and general elections were held, leading to the formation of a Provincial Government headed by R. S. Shukla in April 1946. Subsequent events are a matter of recent history and affected the country as a whole. An important event of the post-Independence period which concerned Sagar district was the separation of the Damoh Sub-division which had formed a part of Sagar district since 1932 to form the new Damoh district in October 1956. The rest of the territory with its present boundaries remained as the district of Sagar in the newly formed State of Madhya Pradesh.

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

POPULATION

According to 1951 Census the population of Sagar district, which included the present Damoh district also, was 9,93,654. In 1956, the boundaries of the district were redrawn and Damoh sub-division was formed into a separate district. The population according to the redrawn boundaries of Sagar was 6,36,191 in 1951. During the years from 1901 to 1951, the population of the district increased by 1,66,505 persons or nearly 35·5 per cent. The growth of population since 1901 according to tahsil break-up can be seen in the table given below :—

Growth of Population, 1901 to 1951

District/Tahsil	Census years					
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Sagar Tahsil	166,473	190,696	187,033	189,768	216,112	239,993
Khurai Tahsil	93,829	111,038	122,269	126,989	142,366	152,163
Rehli Tahsil	136,523	157,770	144,452	148,094	150,936	151,644
Banda Tahsil	72,861	81,812	74,630	80,077	87,635	92,391
Sagar District	469,686	541,256	528,384	544,928	597,049	636,191

NOTE.—In comparing the figures, transfer of territories has been taken account of and adjustment made accordingly.

According to the Census of 1961, the population of Sagar district is shown in the following table: —

Tahsil-wise Population, 1961

District/Tahsil	Area in sq. miles	No. of villages	Total population			Rural	Urban
			Persons	Males	Females		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Sagar	955.5	531	301,417	158,397	143,020	190,671	110,746
Khurai	815.5	559	195,155	101,923	93,232	152,363	42,792

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Rehli	919.2	691	186,229	95,825	90,404	159,063	27,166
Banda	517.8	307	113,746	58,689	55,057	113,746	..
District Total ..	3,960.5	2,088	796,547	414,834	381,713	615,843	180,704

Source.—Census of India, 1961, Vol. VIII, Madhya Pradesh, Part II-A.

NOTE.—The total area of the district includes 752.5 sq.miles of forest area, the tahsil-wise break-up is not available.

According to 1951 Census the district has four tahsils, of which Rehli is the largest and Banda the smallest in respect of area. Taking the redrawn boundaries of Sagar, there were seven urban centres and 1,837 villages in 1951 of which 1,590 or nearly 86 per cent had a population of less than 500 persons covering 45.02 per cent of the population. Of the rest, 182 or 9.87 per cent fall in the range of 500 to 1,000 covering nearly 18.92 per cent of the population; 68 in 1,000 to 10.000 range; three in the range of 10,000 to 20,000 and only one in 50,000 to 1,00,000 range of population. Thus it is evident that in 1951 the majority of the villages were scantily populated. The largest populated village in the District was Rehli with 4,352 persons (2,209 males and 2,143 females), the area being 1,665.68 acres. Villages having one person were, Jhunku and Dawri in Rehli tahsil, Malthone, Khiria Thansingh and Barurwa in Khurai tahsil, each being inhabitated by only one male person. Of the seven urban habitations in the district, two each were in Sagar and Rehli tahsils and three in Khurai The most populated was Sagar town with a population of 66,442 persons (34,848 males and 31,591 females) and it falls in the slab of 50,000 to 1,00,000, that is, a Class II town. Three towns, viz, Sagar cantonment, Bina-Etawah Municipality and Khurai Municipality with 13,626, 12,720 and 11,546 persons, respectively, fall in the slab of 10,000 to 20,000, and were Class IV towns.

Two urban habitations of the Class V towns were Garhakota with 9,268 persons and Deori Municipality with 7,949 persons in Rehli tahsil. The seventh urban habitation—Bamora town, was a Class VI town with a population of 1,882 persons, (968 males and 914 females) During the last 50 years (1901—1951), the per cent increase of population was the highest in Bamora town which rose by 164 per cent. The population of Sagar town increased by about 112 per cent. The lowest increase of 9 per cent was registered in Garhakota town in Rehli tahsil. Among other urban habitations, Sagar cantonment rose by about 25 per cent, Bina-Etawah by 98 per cent, Khurai by 92 per cent and Deori by about 60 per cent, approximately

According to 1961 Census there are eight towns in the district[1]. The population of the towns is given in the table below :—

Population of Towns, 1961

Name of Town	Population		
	Total	Male	Female
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Bina (Etawah) Town	27,476	14,890	12,58[illegible]
Khurai Town	15,316	8,056	7,2[illegible]
Sagar City	85,491	45,735	39,756
Sagar Cantonment	19,185	10,568	8,617
Garhakota Town	11,341	5,872	5,469
Deori Town	9,383	4,906	4,477
Rahatgarh Town	6,070	3,169	2,901
Rehli Town	6,442	3,365	3,077

Source.—Census of India, 1961, Vol. VII, Madhya Pradesh, Pt. II-A.

The increasing pace of urbanization is reflected in the rapid increase in the urban population of Sagar district. It rose by about 48 per cent in 1951-61 decade, while the rural population rose by about 20 per cent only. The highest increase was in Sagar city and Bina-Etawah town. Two new towns have sprung up, namely, Rahatgarh and Rehli, whereas Bamora has ceased to be a town.

Proportion of Sexes.—The proportion of males and females in the district has shown much variation during the last 60 years (1901-1961). This can be seen from the following table:—

Proportion of Sexes, 1901 to 1961

Census Year	Population		
	Total	Male	Female
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1901 ..	469,686	238,076	231,610 (973)
1911 ..	541,256	276,155	265,101 (960)
1921 ..	528,384	272,292	156,092 (941)
1931 ..	544,928	280,553	264,375 (942)
1941 ..	597,049	301,735	295,314 (979)
1951 ..	636,191	329,003	307,188 (934)
1961 ..	796,547	414,834	381,713 (920)

NOTE.—Figures in the bracket are females per 1,000 males.

1. A 'town' in 1961 Census had to be either—
   (i) a municipality, cantonment or corporation ; or
   (ii) a habitation with a population of at least 5,000, at least three-fourths of the adult male population being engaged in non-agricultural occupations.

The reason for the decline in the female proportion upto 1931 could be attributed, to some extent, to the presence of *Chaitaras* (wheat harvesters) mainly males, who immigrated from the contiguous areas at the time of wheat harvest in the month of February and March while the Census enumeration was in progress.

As against the male population of 3,29,003 and female population of 3,07,188 in 1951 Census, which gave a proportion of 934 females per 1,000 males, the figures of the 1961 Census show that the male population increased to 4,14,834, and female population to 3,81,713, which gives a proportion of 920 females per 1,000 males. The predominance of males over females was more or less general in all the tahsils of the district In Sagar it was largest with 903 females to 1,000 males, while in Rehli it was slightly less with 943 females per 1,000 males.

Density of Population.- The density of population per square mile in the district has shown a steady rise from 118 persons in 1901 to 172[1] persons in 1951 and 201 in 1961. The density of population in 1961 for Madhya Pradesh is 189. It is interesting to note that during the intervening three decades, commencing from 1911 to 1941 the density of population remained almost static with about 137 persons per square mile. This may be due to the wide-spread famine and influenza epidemic which devastated the district in 1918-19 resulting in an appalling mortality.[2] Consequently, 1921 Census recorded a fall of four persons showing 133 persons to a square mile. Except for Khurai tahsil where density moved up from 118 to 130 per square mile, all the remaining three tahsils of Sagar district registered a fall which could hardly be recouped in the next 10 years.

The table below gives the density of population from 1901 to 1961:—

Density, 1901 to 1961

District/Tahsil	Density of population per square mile						
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Sagar Tahsil ..	156	179	176	178	203	226	315
Khurai Tahsil ..	100	118	130	135	151	162	239
Rehli Tahsil ..	109	126	115	118	120	121	203
Banda Tahsil ..	103	116	106	113	124	180	227
Sgar District ..	118	137	133	137	139	172	201

NOTE.—1. The density figures of 1941 and 1951 are for the entire district including Damoh and Hatta tahsils.
2. Density figures for 1901 are taken from Saugor District Gazetteer, Vol A, p. 33.
3. In 1941, the figures are rounded to nearest whole number.

1. Includes Damoh and Hatta tahsils.
2. Census of India, 1951, Vol. VIII, Pt-I-A, p. 342.

From the above table it is evident that in 1951 the largest density was recorded in Sagar, *viz.*, 226 which is not surprising as it was the district headquarters. Sagar urban area, however, has a density of 4,155 persons and Rehli urban 11,712 persons per square mile.

Growth of Population.—The first assessment of population in the district was made in 1866, and according to the then area of the district it had a population of 4,98,642. From 1872, decennial census operations began to be conducted, and by 1891 three regular censuses had been completed. In 1872 it returned 5,27,725 persons and showed an increase of 5.8 per cent. The increase was perhaps largely due to the immigration from the adjoining district of Damoh where the impact of the famine of 1868-69 had been somewhat severe. A further increase of seven per cent was registered by 1881 when the population of the district rose to 5,64,950. This increase in Sagar was the lowest in the province owing to the unhealthy year of 1878, when death-rate was 56 per mille. However, it was estimated that nearly 20,000 famine refugees from Gwalior and other States had arrived in the district in 1877-78. In 1891 the population recorded a further rise of about 27,000 persons or five per cent, and the total came to 5,91,743. It was considered that there was some emigration to Central India States from the district during the decade. Col. Hogg writes: "It appears that a good number of inhabitants of Saugor and Banda tahsil have emigrated into Panna and other adjoining Native States."[1] The low rate of increase may be the joint result of reduced birth-rate, high mortality and emigration as described above.

The first decade of the present century opened with a downward movement in population when a decline of 1,20,697 or 20.4 per cent, since 1891, was registered and the population had decreased to 4,71,046[2] in 1901. The decrease was largely due to the famine and scarcity which prevailed practically throughout the previous decade, and especially in 1900. The deaths were mostly in excess of births. The death-rate in the district during the decade ending 1901, was 44.7 per mille, while the birth-rate was only 30.3 per mille,[3] which give some indication of the severe trial through which the people of Sagar had passed.

Since the Census of 1901, 11 villages with a population of 1,567 persons and a strip of Government forest in the extreme south abutting on the Narmada, involving an area of 45 square miles was transferred to Nasimhapur district.[4] The net variation in the

1. Census of India, 1891, Vol. XI, Pt. I, p. 470.
2. Unadjusted population.
3. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p 35.
4. *Ibid*, p. 33.

population of Sagar during the last 50 years (1901-51) can best be seen from the following table :—

Census Year	Population	Net variation in population during				
		10 Yrs.	20 Yrs.	30 Yrs.	40 Yrs.	50 Yrs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1901 ..	4,69,686	71,570 (15.24)	58,698 (12.50)	75,242 (16.02)	1,27,363 (27.12)	166,505 (35.45)
1911 ..	5,41,256	—12,872 (—2.38)	3,672 (0.68)	55,793 (10.31)	94,935 (17.54)	
1921 ..	5,28,384	16,544 (3.13)	68,665 (13.00)	1,07.807 (20.40)		
1931 ..	5.44,928	52,121 (9.56)	91,263 (16.75)			
1941 ..	5,97,049	39,142 (6.56)				
1951 ..	6,36,191					

NOTE.—Figures in the brackets are percentages.

The decade of 1901-11 marked a growth of population by 15.24 per cent over the previous decade. The birth-rate varied from 31.08 to 62.69 per mille, while the death-rate varied from 24.01 to 52.56 per mille during the decade. Besides, there was an immigration of about 54,000 persons into the district, which was balanced by an emigration of some 50,000 persons from the district. Those coming into the district were labourers including the wheat-harvesters, commonly called the *Chautaras*, numbering about a thousand. Besides, over five thousand pilgrims were also recorded to have come to Garhakota fair. Those going from the district to outside places chiefly went to the contiguous parts within the State to find work. The population during the succeeding decade, *viz.*, 1911-21 registered a decrease of 2.38 per cent over the population of 1911. This was partly because of a scourge of malaria that afflicted the district in 1915 and the much greater misfortune of 1918-19, when acute scarcity and an epidemic of influenza decimated a large section of the population. The alarming death-rate of 133.45 per mille which meant 72,253 persons in that year, was described as an unparalleled calamity in the records of the district. Another factor that accounted for the decline of population in this decade was the reduced number of married women of child-bearing age and a large number of widows, both being the consequence of the influenza epidemic and famine. The total number of immigrants into the district was of the order of 55,000 with female predominating, and the total number of emigrants from the district was about 43,000.

The next decade, 1921-31 showed an increase in population of about 3.13 per cent over the previous decade. This increase was fairly evenly spread out in all the tahsils, the increase in Sagar tahsil

being the least, *viz.*, only 1.46 per cent. The last three years from 1927 to 1930 in this decade were years of comparative scarcity owing to the capricious nature of the rainfall. The birth-rate varied from 36.40 to 44.80 per mille, and the death-rate from 26.80 to 38.63 per mille during the decade. The number of persons who immigrated into the district during the decade was 53,000 of whom females were slightly in excess of the males. The figures of emigrants from the district to outside places for this decade are not available.

The decade of 1931-41 showed a more marked increase in population which rose by 9.56 per cent over the last decade. Most of this increase was registered in and around the towns of Sagar and Khurai, the growth in the former being 27.40 per cent. The birth-rate varied from 43.18 to 50.99 per mille, while the death-rate varied from 27.51 to 49.45 per mille during the decade. The next decade, 1941-51 maintained the increase, and the population grew to 6,36,191 in 1951, which shows an increase of about 6.56 per cent over the population in the previous decade. The largest increase, *viz.*, 11 per cent was in Sagar tahsil, the next being Khurai, where it rose by 6.88 per cent. The mean decennial birth-rate (registered) was 35.6 per cent while death-rate (registered) was 30.0 per cent for the decade 1941-51. One significant feature of this period was that as a result of the partition of the country in 1947 about 6,212 displaced persons came and settled in Sagar-cum-Damoh district.

Migration.—The pattern of migration in the district as mentioned earlier is marked by a preponderance of women among the immigrants from the former Vindhya Pradesh, Madhya Bharat and Uttar Pradesh regions, which perhaps indicates the nature of 'marriage migration' involved. The immigration from Bombay appeared to have been of a semi-permanent nature. The figures of immigration into Sagar from important places according to 1951 Census are given below:—

Immigration, 1951

Name of the tract from where emigrated	Immigrants		
	Persons	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Jabalpur	1,811	835	976
2. Hoshangabad ..	2,313	991	1,322
3. Uttar Pradesh ..	13,333	5,089	8,244
4. Bombay	1,262	857	405
5. Vindhya Pradesh ..	5,666	1,838	3,828
6. Madhya Bharat ..	7,786	2,253	5,533
7. Bhopal	3,539	932	2,607
8. Pakistan	6,424	3,534	2,890

NOTE.—The figures of Damoh sub-division (Rural) are excluded.

The proportion of immigrants in the population of Sagar-cum-Damoh district in 1951 was lower than in 1931. This could be attributed to the change in the principles of enumeration in 1951 Census. The temporary immigrants known as *Chaitaras*, who used to form a considerable proportion of immigrants, were not enumerated in 1951. Most of the immigration from Uttar Pradesh, Vindhya Pradesh and Madhya Bharat was in the rural tract of Sagar, Banda and Khurai tahsils, whereas the majority of those from Pakistan, remained concentrated in the non-city urban areas of Sagar-cum-Damoh district owing to the business interests. Besides, the non-Indian nationals enumerated in Sagar district in 1951 were 26, males 11 and females 15.[1] Of these, three were Pakistanis, six British, four Americans, one Dutch, seven Sweedish, two Portuguese, two Nepalese and one Irish.

Distribution Between Urban and Rural Areas.

According to 1951 Census there were nine urban habitations and 2,975 villages. If these figures are adjusted to the present boundaries of the district, there were seven urban habitations and 1,837 villages in 1951. Since then two more towns have sprung up in 1961, *viz.*, Rahatgarh and Rehli, while Bamora has ceased to be a town The rural and urban break-up of population from 1901 to 1961 can be seen in the following table:—

Rural and Urban Population, 1901 to 1961

Census Year	Population	Rural	Urban
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1901	4,69,686	4,01,438 (85.47)	68,248 (14.53)
1911	5,41,256	4,65,593 (86.02)	75,663 (13.98)
1921	5,28,384	4,62,528 (87.54)	65,856 (12.46)
1931	5,44,928	4,64,386 (85.22)	80,542 (14.78)
1941	5,97,049	5,00,829 (83.88)	96,220 (16.12)
1951	6,36,191	5,14,640 (80.89)	1,21,551 (19.11)
1961	7,96,547	6,15,843 (77.32)	1,80,704 (22.68)

NOTE.—Figures in bracket are percentages to total population.

1. Includes the non-city urban population of Damoh sub-division.

It is clear from the above table that the district maintained a predominantly rural bias throughout the last 60 years. Not much variation was noticeable in the ratio between the rural and urban population in the census years of 1901 to 1921. The rural population rose from 85.47 per cent to 87.54 per cent in 1921, whereas the urban population declined to 12.46 per cent of the total population. The number of persons per mille of population residing in towns also decreased from 145 to 125. This may be due to the influenza epidemic of 1918-19 owing to which all migrating labour force working in bidi and other industries in the towns might have fallen back to rural areas. After the census decade of 1921-31 the urban population began to grow steadily in the succeeding years, so that from 12.46 per cent in 1921 it rose to 19.11 per cent in 1951, and 22.68 per cent of the total population in 1961. On the other hand, the rural population decreased from 87.54 per cent in 1921 to 80.89 per cent in 1951 and 77.32 in 1961. During the last 60 years the urban population rose by 164.78 per cent, whereas the rural population rose by only about 54 per cent. The increase was largely in Sagar town (112 per cent) which had almost doubled its population by 1951.

The distribution of rural and urban population in different tahsils in 1961, given in the table below, shows that Banda tahsil is entirely a rural tract with 1,13,746 rural population while Sagar had the largest urban proportion :—

Tahsil-wise Urban Population, 1961

Tahsil	Total Population	Rural	Urban	Per cent of Urban population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Khurai	1,95,155	1,52,363	42,792	21.93
Banda	1,13,746	1,13,746	..	..
Sagar	3,01,417	1,90,671	1,10,746	36.74
Rehli	1,86,229	1,59,063	27,166	14.59
	7,96,547	6,15,843	1,80,704	22.68

Source.—Census of India 1961, Vol. VIII, Madhya Pradesh, Part II—A.

Most of the increase in the urban population has come during the last two decades when the urban population increased by 25,331 or 26.33 per cent in 1951 and 59,153 or 48.67 per cent in 1961. The

sources of immigration in the urban settlements of Sagar-cum-Damoh district in 1951 are given below:—

	Persons
Other Districts of Madhya Pradesh ..	3,969
Uttar Pradesh	3,167
Vindhya Pradesh	1,626
Madhya Bharat	1,890
Pakistan	5,854

Most of the influx in urban areas of Sagar-cum-Damoh district was presumably for the sake of employment in various services and in trade, etc.

Displaced Persons

Consequent on the partition of the country in 1947 and the formation of Pakistan, considerable displacement of population occurred in the following years of the decade. Sagar-cum-Damoh had its own share of 6,212 persons consisting of 3,435 males and 2,777 females who were enumerated in 1951 Census as 'displaced persons'. Of the total displaced population, 5,581 persons were rehabilitated in the urban areas and only 631 persons in rural areas. The year-wise influx of displaced persons from 1947 onwards according to the place of origin is given below:—

Displaced Population, 1951

Place of origin	Year					Total
	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951 (upto February)	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
West Pakistan	1,589	4,022	221	20	5	6,127
East Pakistan	26	18	2	..	..	46
Not stated	15	22	2	..	..	39
Total displaced persons	1,900	4,062	225	20	5	6,212

Source.—Census of India 1951, Vol. VII, Madhya Pradesh, Pt. II-C.

NOTE.—Damoh sub-division is included.

It is clear from the above table that most of the persons in the district came from West Pakistan, the bulk of whom arrived in the first 2 years, *viz.*, 1947 to 1948. Most of the displaced persons nearly

3,814 came from Larkhana district of whom 3,444 arrived in 1948. Most of the displaced persons from Gujarat (648), Dadu (187) and Sukkur (163) came in the first two years after partition.

The tahsil-wise break-up of displaced population is shown in the following table, according to the present boundaries of Sagar.

Displaced Population—Tahsil-wise, 1951

District/Tahsil	Persons	Males	Females	Rural		Urban	
				Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Sagar	2,810	1,506	1,304	123	63	1,383	1,241
Khurai	1,228	732	496	189	89	543	407
Rehli	302	178	124	12	7	166	117
Banda	..	..	..	..	..	..	.
District Total ..	4,340	2,416	1,924	324	159	2,092	1,765

Source.—Census of India, 1951, Vol. VII, Madhya Pradesh, Pt. II-C.

Among the displaced persons who have settled in the rural areas of Sagar, though very small in number, the number of males is nearly double that of the females, while in urban areas, men and women are nearly equal in number. This would suggest that only the unmarried men tended to seek a living in the village, while the married men preferred to live in the towns where their women-folk could also get an opportunity to augment the family income through tailoring embroidery, etc. Out of 6,212[1] displaced persons in the district only 66 or 1.06 per cent earned their livelihood through agriculture, while the rest of 6,146 or 98.94 per cent were engaged in the non-agricultural pursuits. Of these nearly 4,045 were engaged in 'commerce', 503 in 'production other than cultivation', 441 in 'transport' and 1,157 in 'other services and 'miscellaneous occupations'.

LANGUAGE

Sagar district with well over 90 per cent of the population speaking only one language—Hindi is linguistically a homogenuous district. It lies on the southern part of the Bundelkhand tract, and is characterized by the standard Bundeli dialect of Western Hindi. Both the Nagari character and its congener the Kaithi character are used in writing Bundeli.[2] According to 1901 Census the speakers of

1. Includes Damoh sub-division.
2. G. A. Grierson, Linguistic Survey of India, Vol IX, Pt. I, p. 90.

Western Hindi in Sagar numbered 4,62,636 or well over 98 per cent. The Census of 1951 returned about 99 per cent of rural population as Hindi speaking, who were more or less uniformly distributed over all the tahsils of Sagar. In urban settlements also the principal mother-tongue is Hindi. Of the 1,67,064 combined urban population of Sagar-cum-Damoh nearly 1,55,011 or 92.8 per cent are returned as speakers of Hindi. The predominance of Hindi can best be seen from the following table:—

Principal Languages, 1901 to 1951

Languages	Census Year					
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Hindi	4,62,636 (98.21)	5,37,356 (99.24)	5,24,173 (99.23)	5,40,520 (99.25)	N.A.	6,67,369 (98.16)
Marathi	6,459	1,369	1,298	1,552	N.A.	2,669 (0.39)
English	588	490	909	644	N.A.	130 (0.02)
Gujarati	555	425	396	524	N.A.	1,142 (0.17)
Punjabi	154	1,077	768	350	N.A.	2,025 (0.3)
Sindhi	..	..	..	..	..	4,156 (0.61)

NOTE.—(1) 1951 figures do not include the rural areas of Damoh sub-division.
(2) The figures of Hindi include persons having Urdu as mother-tongue.
(3) Figures in bracket are percentages.

The slight fall in the percentage of speakers of Western Hindi to 98.16 per cent in 1951 is mainly due to the influx of displaced persons who migrated in the late years of the past decade into Sagar.

Languages other than Hindi are the mother-tongues of a small proportion of the population of Sagar. Amongst these languages, besides Sindhi with 0.61 per cent, speakers of Marathi occupy an important place, being the mother-tongue of 2,669 persons, of whom 1,272 are concentrated in Sagar tahsil (rural) alone. The form of Marathi language in Sagar is the standard Marathi of Poona and not the Nagpuri dialect, on account of an interesting fact that Sagar was governed directly from Poona by the representatives of the Peshwa, and did not come under the Bhonsla of Nagpur.[1] Among the other mother-tongues, speakers of Punjabi were 2,025 and Gujarati 1,142.

1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p. 20.

In the non-city urban area also, languages other than Hindi were spoken by a small number of persons. Sindhi dominated the urban tracts of Sagar-cum-Damoh with 4,047 speakers, and a very close second to it was Urdu, with 3,512 speakers. Of the rest, Marathi, Gujarati and Punjabi claimed almost equal numbers and the least were the speakers of Marwari.

Bilingualism.—As mentioned earlier, in the combined population of Sagar and non-city urban areas of Damoh district the Hindi speakers were about 98.16 per cent according to 1951 Census. Among the remaining persons whose mother-tongue was not Hindi the majority spoke Hindi as a subsidiary language. The following table shows the extent of bilingualism prevent in Sagar district.

Bilingualism—Subsidiary Language, 1951

Mother-tongue	Total speakers	Total No. of persons returned as speaking a language subsidiary to mother-tongue.	Speakers of Hindi as a subsidiary language.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Hindi	9,76,478	1,647	..
Sindhi	4,272	2,653	2,639
Marathi	2,720	1,813	1,797
Punjabi	2,085	1,762	1,544
Marwari	983	949	926
Gujarati	1,363	1,127	1,110
Urdu	3,880	2,326	2,291

NOTE.—The figures in the above table are for combined Sagar and Damoh Districts since separate figures are not available.

Referring to the language of Sagar District Russell observes : "The language of the District is the Bundelkhandi or Bundeli dialect of Western Hindi." It differs from Urdu in some points of inflection. "In Bundeli the long *a* of the terminations of substantives and adjectives is turned into *o* as *ghoro* for *ghora*. The change is also made in the participial form of verbs as *khao* for *khaya*. Another tendency is to leave out the aspirate if it is not the initial letter of a word; thus *pahila* (first) would be *pailo*, *pahar* (3 hours), *pair*, and so on. The *ko* of oblique case is also changed to *e* as *tum bazare gaye hate* for *tum bazar ko gaye the*. If the root of a verb ends in a long *a* it is

changed into *ai* to form the verbal noun as *Khaibo* for *khana*. In future the termination *ga* is not used in Bundeli, but the Gujarati termination *shai* altered into *hai* is used, as *u karhai* for *wah karega*. The past tense of the substantive verb *tha, the* is changed to *hato, hate* and the long *a* in the termination of the participle is shortened, as for instance *wah jata tha* would become *u jat hato*. In Bundeli as in Urdu the participle *ne* always follows the nominative to transitive verbs in the past tenses, and in this respect it differs from Western Hindi. Bundeli has a small literature dating from the time of Chhatrasal of Panna, and his immediate predecessors and successors of the early part of the eighteenth century. One of the leading poets of Hindi literature (Padmakar) was born in Saugor, and his poems, which are very popular, are largely tinctured with Bundeli."[1]

RELIGION AND CASTE

The principal communities inhabiting Sagar are Hindus, Muslims and Jains. The population of the district is predominantly Hindu who number 6,29,456 or about 99 per cent out of the total adjusted population of 6,96,191 in the district in 1951. In rest of the one per cent population there were sizable groups of Muslims and Jains who were of the order of 24,927 and 21,179, respectively, in 1951. In 1941 these two communities in the district numbered 30,954 and 18,937 persons, respectively, which worked out to an increase of 33.31 per cent among Muslims and 24.29 per cent among Jains over the 1901 population. The decrease in the Muslim population during the decade ending 1951 may be attributed to the movement of some Muslims from this district, as from certain other parts of the country, following the establishment of Pakistan. The following table gives a picture of the different important communities in the district during 1901 to 1951.

Population by Religion, 1901 to 1951

Census Year (1)		Hindu (2)	Sikh (3)	Jain (4)	Muslim (5)	Christian (6)
1901	..	4,10,513	149	15,155	23,215	1,357
1911	..	4,71,753	634	16,713	25,835	1,454
1921	..	4,78,129	23	15,222	22,522	1,784
1931	..	4,00,121	122	17,136	25,716	1,930
1941	..	5,04,405	285	18,937	30,954	1,671
1951*	..	6,29,456	1,667	21,179	24,927	2,549

*Includes the population of non-city urban area of Damoh and Hatta tahsils

1. *Ibid*, p. 39.

Early Mediaeval Temple at Binaika.

Sun Temple with carved doorways, Rehli (Early Mediaeval Period).

Hindus.—The Hindus are divided into several castes and sub-castes. In 1901 the castes were classified according to their social precedence, but in 1911 and 1921 the earlier procedure of 1891 was followed according to which the traditional occupation of castes formed the basis of classification. The compilation of caste-wise statistics has been dispensed with from 1941 onwards.

The increase in the population of the Hindus in 1941 from 4,80,121 to 5,04,405, *i.e.* by 5.05 per cent may be partly due to the natural growth, and partly to the discontinuance of tabulating some animistic sects, separately.

Among the Hindus the Brahmans have a number of sub-castes and groups most of which are endogamous, such as Sanadhya, Kanyakubja, Sarwaria, Jijhotia, etc. Among other notable groups of Brahmans are Bhargavas and different groups of Maharastrian Brahmans. Apart from these, there are some families belonging to the Khedawal Brahmans of Gujarat, and a few Telugu Brahmans from Andhra Most of these Brahmans, barring some who perform priestly functions, are owners of land and agriculturists.

Others who also had a large share in the ownership of land in the district before the abolition of Malguzari, were the Rajputs, Dangis and Lodhis Of these, Lodhis formed the largest number. The Rajputs and the Dangis were sub-divided into different smaller groups which were traditionally graded in respect of their social status. Those belonging to the Vaishya community in the district, were mainly the Gahoi, Nema and the Agrawal. They are all fairly widely, spread in the district, both in rural and urban areas. Another important community among the Hindus in the district are the Kayasthas, whose traditional occupation was writing and accounts A few of them, however, are now also engaged either in business, trade or agriculture.

Among the artisan castes, the Sunars (goldsmiths) enjoy a fairly high social status and are generally well-to-do. The orthodox members of this class observe the hereditary rituals and rules of purity and pollution. A number of Sunars have become owners of land and are, therefore, influential members of the society. Other artisan castes in the district are Teli (oil-crusher), Lohar (blacksmith) and Kumhar (potter). The main sub-castes among the Kumhars are Bardia, Gadhere and Sungaria.

Other Castes and Tribes.— Both Kurmis and Kachhis who formerly were quite in substantial numbers mostly inhabit the rural

areas. The Kurmis live entirely by agriculture and enjoy a high reputation as experts in the art of cultivation. The next important caste is Kachhi, who were traditional horticulturists, but have now also drifted towards agriculture. Kachhis 'are probably an off-shoot of the Kurmis', but owing to a similarity of name, it is claimed that they are connected with the Kachhawaha sept of Rajputs', which, however, does not seem probable.[1] Most of them have taken up agriculture as their main occupation, and are generally settled in the villages adjoining cities and towns.

Other minor groups include Ghosis who mostly inhabit rural areas. They own land and are agriculturists. Besides, they keep cattle and sell milk and milk products, etc., in the adjoining villages and towns. Among other castes, Ahirs and Dhimars are important, the former being mainly cattle herders, and the latter water carriers, who also work as domestic servants. Nais (barber) and Dhobi (washermen) render indispensable service to the community.

Concerning the social status of these communities, Mr. Greenfield who was Deputy Commissioner of Sagar observed as follows :

> "For years past some castes have been trying to elevate themselves in the social scale. The most notable and recent examples are Nais and Dhimars. The Nais wish to identify themselves with Brahmans, as "Nvayi" Brahmans, but the movement has not been successful as both the majority of Nais and the public look upon it with disfavour, the former because the status of Brahman will debar them from performing menial duties which contribute materially to their livelihood. Other Hindus oppose the innovation as the menial services which the Nai performs are indispensable to Hindus on all religious, social and ceremonial occasions ....
>
> "The ambition of Dhimars does not soar so high as the Nais. They want to call themselves as Renkwar Rajput instead of Renkwar Dhimars. The movement has so far not been successful. Their position is much the same as that of Nais and the same causes operate which obstruct the advancement of the Nais. As a matter of fact the question of the uplift of Nais and Dhimars has been raised by some clerks, school-masters, and such other persons who feel shy of their origin and connection, and the movement is up-till now confined to them."[2]

Chamars had been numerically an important caste in the district. In 1931 Census they were 78,946 in number, of whom 40,015

1. R. V. Russell and Hiralal. The Tribes and Castes of the Central Provinces, Vol. III, p. 285.

2. Census of India, 1931, Vol. XII, Pt. I, p. 355

were men and 38,930 women. The bulk of them have taken to masonry and agricultural labour. Many of them are Kabirpanthis or Satnamis by religion. Dohar is a sub-caste of Chamars and there are different endogamous groups among them.

The Chadars are known as Kotwars, for the village watchmen and weavers found in the district mainly belong to this caste. Khangars and its sub-caste Dahayats found in the district, originally came from Bundelkhand. Though in the past they were believed to indulge in criminal activities, they have now settled down to a more law-abiding occupation and often work as village watchmen and labourers.

The Scheduled Castes[1] population in 1961 constituted 1,64,977 or nearly 26.7 per cent of the district population. Although Sagar is not a Scheduled Area, there are two principal tribal groups which inhabit the district, namely the Gonds and Savaras. Gonds were largely found in the Banda, Sagar and Rehli tahsils. In 1931 the tribal population in Sagar-cum-Damoh district was 87,789 (9.7 per cent) which declined in 1941 to 83,607 (8.9 per cent).

One of the reasons for the fall in the population of tribals, as noted by Mr. R. P Noronha I.C.S., who was Deputy Commissioner of the district, was the increased emigration of Gonds from Sagar to Bhopal State, besides Bundelkhand, where easy terms were offered to them for colonization.[2] The proportion of aboriginals was 89 to 1,000 population in the district.

The Khatola Gonds in Sagar "take their name from Khatola State in Bundelkhand, which is said to have been governed by Gond rulers." In Sagar "they rank almost equal with Raj-Gonds and intermarry with them."[3] Almost all these Gonds now speak only the local Bundeli dialect of Hindi.[4] The aboriginals in Sagar gradually lost their land and became landless labourers. Very few Savaras owned land, so that it may be taken, that nearly all the 85,500 acres of land held by aboriginal tenants in 1930-40 belonged to Gond tenants.

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1. The Scheduled Castes in the district are: 1. Bahna or Bahana. 2. Balahi or Balai 3. Basor, Burud Bansor or Bansodi, 4. Chamar Chamari, Mochi, Nona, Rohidas, Ramnami, Satnami, Surjyabansi or Surjvaramnami 5. Dom or Dumar 6. Ganda or Gandi 7. Khatik, Chikwa or Chikwi 8. Mang, Dankani-Mang Mang-Mahashi, Mang-Garudi, Madari, Garudi or Radhe-Mang. 9. Mehtar or Bhangi 10. Sansi, 11. Chadar 12. Dhanuk 13. Katia or Patharia 14. Khangar Kanera or Mirdha 15. Kori 16. Mahar or Mehra.

2. W. V. Grigson, The Aboriginal Problem in the C. P. and Berar, p. 18.

3. R. V. Russell, Op. cit. Vol. III p. 63.

4. W. V. Grigson, Op. cit., p. 19.

Regarding the gradual process to which the land passed from the hands of aboriginal to non-aboriginals in the district, Mr. Noronha made detailed enquiry in 22 villages of Kesli area of Rehli tahsil, in each of which, Gonds constituted nearly 80 to 90 per cent of population: "broadly speaking, the root cause is the Bania despite the fact that in theory under the Tenancy Act (until the recent amendments) occupancy land could not be sold for debt............ ......A Gond borrows Rs. 100 from a Bania at 24 per cent annual interest. Besides paying this interest he has to meet the rent of his holding and maintain himself and his family. One of two things happens. If he pays his interest, he falls into arrears of rent and is ultimately ejected. If he does not pay the interest, in due course the Bania attaches his cattle and moveable property. Having no cattle he cannot plough; the land is uncultivated; he cannot pay the rent; he is ejected."[1]

Jains.—The Jains constitute the third largest group in Sagar district. According to the Census of 1951 there were 21,179 Jains, which is 39 per cent more than the number that existed in 1901. The ratio of females among the Jains was 906 to a thousand males according to 1951 Census. The Jains are mostly traders and money-lenders, and formerly owned a large number of villages due mainly to the improvidence of the Dangi land owners.[2] The important sub-divisions among the Jains are Parwar, Golapurab, Oswal, etc., of whom the Parwars are in the largest number. The Jains are mainly concentrated in Sagar town and tahsil. They observe their own distinctive religious practices and have their own religious books, places of worship, festivals, etc.

Two other religious communities that deserve mention because of their population in Sagar district are the Sikhs and the Christians. According to the 1951 Census there were 1,667 Sikhs and 2,543 Christians in the district. The majority of these live in urban tracts of the district, especially in Sagar town and tahsil.

Muslims.—The Muslim population of Sagar district was fairly evenly distributed between rural and urban areas. In 1941 nearly 56 per cent of the Muslim population was classified as rural, and the rest of 44 per cent, urban. Out of these, Sagar tahsil alone accounted for the largest share, *viz.*, 18,417. During the decade of 1941-51 the position underwent a change and rural population of Muslims constituted only 34 per cent, while the rest 66 per cent

1. *Ibid*, pp. 19, 25.
2. Census of India, 1931, Vol. XII, Pt. I, p. 335.

inhabited the urban area. Out of these, as many as 16,431 Muslims lived in non-city urban area of the district.[1]

There was a decline in the Muslim population of the district during 1941-51. From 30,954 in 1941 it fell to 24,927 in 1951 One of the reasons for this fall was apparently the political changes that occurred in 1947 leading to the migration of a number of Muslims to Pakistan.

The main sects among the Muslims, as elsewhere, are Shia and Sunni. The difference between them rests on the recognition of the spiritual leadership of the Caliph. The whole of Sunnat Jamat is divided into various groups the chief being the Kazi (priest), Julaha (weaver), Kunjra (fruit and vegetable vendor), Kasai (butcher), Nai (barber), Bhishti (water-carrier), Mukheri (dealer in cattle), Bahna (cotton-cleaner), and Rangrez (dyer) in the district. Russell observed that the religious observances of the Muslims presented "a curious mixture of Hindu and Mohammadan rites."[2] The Khatiks or the butchers follow either the Hindu or Muslim religion although Muslim butchers are properly called as Kasais.

As elsewhere in India, in Sagar also caste as the segmentary division of the society is characterized by endogamy, social distance on the basis of ideas of ritual purity and pollution, hierarchical structure, functional specilization and economic and social inter-dependence of different castes.

Many of these restrictions have been breaking down under the pressure of changing conditions. The occupational displacement caused by the oil mills, mill-made cloth, factory made tiles, etc., have left little scope for the traditional castes pursuing oil-crushing, weaving and pottery; hence they are thus forced to take to some other occupations. Restrictions on taking food, water, etc., from other castes are disappearing The abolition of Malguzari and the introduction of Panchayats have affected the old pattern of inter-caste relations. Greater communication with urban areas and the Government's policy on the abolition of untouchability and discrimination on the basis of caste are also responsible for changes in social ideas and behaviour, everywhere.

Religious Beliefs and Practices.—The religious beliefs and practices observed by different communities in the district conform to

1. The urban population of Sagar district includes the population of Damoh and Hatta also since separate figures are not available.
2. R. V. Russell, Op. cit., Vol. I, p. 249.

those prevalent in other parts of the country to a large extent. The different sections of the Hindus follow the forms of worship and religious tenets, and read the principal religious book of the Hindus The recital of *Satyanarayan Katha* is a common form of *puja* popular among the Hindus, in which the *pandit* recites the *katha* in Sanskrit and translates it into Hindi. The friends and relatives are called and on the termination of the recital, *prasad* and *charnamrit*, a preparation of curd, sugar, etc.. is distributed. The Jains have certain characteristic religious beliefs and practices of their own. They worship their Tirthankars in the temple dedicated to them. The principal sects among them are Swetambars and Digambars. The practice of observing *shraddha* in commemoration of the dead ancestors during the fortnight called *pitrapaksha* is common among the Hindus The belief behind this is that the spirits of the dead ancestors visit their descendants on the particular day.

Apart from the deities worshipped by the Hindus in other parts of the country, there are certain village Gods who are worshipped by all sections of the Hindu village population. One of them is Khermata the goddess of village territory. She is believed to be the incarnation of Devi, and is known by different names. She is usually represented by a red or a black image kept in a small hut and worshipped by a priest specially at the time of the Navaratri and epidemic. Another deity Hardaul, represented by an image of man on horseback carrying a spear, is chiefly honoured at weddings. Women visit the shrine usually in Vaisakh. Dulha Deo, is still another godling, worshipped at the time of wedding and almost every village has a shrine for him. Yet another deity known by the name of Thanua Baba is a presiding deity for the welfare of cattle, and it is usually offered the first measure of the milk of a cow after she delivers a calf. The offerings to Media Baba (Mirohia Deo), the god of the field boundaries, are made generally at the beginning of the agricultural operations, in the belief that he might help the operations and prevent any damage to the crops The brides usually worship Ghatoia, represented by a round stone or a platform on a river crossing or nullah. Among other Gods, Nag Deo is worshipped usually on the fifth day of the fortnight of Sravana; Baram Deo is feared as a strong ghost and Gond Baba stands for any Gond who has met with a violent death.' Another interesting deity is Chitharyau Devi or goddess of rags, usually at the outskirts of the village. People make offerings of rags, tying them to the branches of a tree.

As mentioned earlier the religious beliefs and practices in the district are largely the projection of the general beliefs of the community, and this also holds good in case of Muslims. Muharram is the

period of mourning specially among Shias who observe all the customs connected with death in a family, i.e., at places women break their bangles and give up the use of ornaments during the period. Many Shias hold *majlis* in their house and listen to *marsia* or elegy, depicting the life of Imam Hussain accompanied with loud lamentations.

The principal religious observances among Muslims are as described by Russell: "Kalima or creed; Sula or the five daily prayers; Roza or thirty-day fast of Ramzan; Zakab the legal alms, and Hajj the pilgrimage to Mecca, which should be performed once in a life time."[1]

New Religious Leaders and Movements

Two religious movements, *viz*., Kabirpanth and Arya Samaj, the former associated with the name of Kabir, the propounder of the sect (A.D. 1440—1518)[2] and the latter with Dayanand Saraswati a well known social and religious reformer (1824—1883)[3] gained a considerable following in Sagar district in the last century. With the visit of Motidas—follower of Kabir sect—to Sagar, a branch named Kabir Ashram came into being in 1830 and it began to spread the philosophy of Kabir Saheb, which condemned idol worship, the distinction of caste and creed, etc., through lectures and dissemination of printed material. Chamars, who are most numerous in the district, adopted the sect and began to be called Kabirpanthis. They stopped eating dead cattle, since the sect condemns the destruction of animal life. In 1861 the name of the Ashram was changed to Kabir Mission but in 1935 it was again changed as Kabir Samaj. Its branches at Jaisinghnagar, Deori and Garhakota are still functioning.

Another religious and social organisation affiliated with the Arya Pritinidhi Sabha, Madhya Pradesh and Vidarbha, Nagpur, came into being in 1891 under the name of Arya Samaj in Sagar. This movement endeavours to lift the society from the hold of orthodoxy of caste and creed, untouchability and other social and religious evils, through reconversion of those who are out-cast through inter-caste marriage, helping the destitutes and orphans and the like. Because of its progressive ideas it immediately became popular among the educated classes. This organisation opened libraries, reading-rooms, and held weekly *sat sangh*, religious sittings. It also conducts

1. *Ibid*, p 260
2. *Ibid*, p. 232 (This date is given by Bishop Westcott, however, M Crooke states A.D 1488-1512).
3. *Ibid*, pp 201-02

various examinations, *viz.* 'Arya Sindhanta Visharad', etc. They also hold competitions for the promotion of the cause of Vedic religion and culture among the school students at the time of Bodhotsav (Shivratri) and Vedprachar Saptah (Krishna Janam Ashtmi). Prizes are awarded to the winners. Among other activities of the Samaj is the running of a 'Vyayam Shala' to teach yogic exercises.

SOCIAL LIFE

Joint Family.—From the sample of households takes in 1951 Census, it is evident that nearly 37 per cent of the households in the district were comprised three or less members each. They covered nearly 21 per cent of the population. Similarly, households having four to six members each amounted to nearly 47 per cent and covered 48 per cent of the population. The large size households having seven or more members each constituted 16 per cent of the households, and covered nearly 31 per cent of the population. It would appear from this analysis that the majority of population is moving towards a comparatively medium size family Further it shows that 77 per cent of the members of the household consisted of the head of the family, wife, sons and daughters, and the rest of the 23 per cent contained relations of the head of the family as well. This would further lead one to conclude that the bonds of the joint family system are loosening their hold on the people. Of the 23 per cent appearing as relations in the family nearly 14 per cent are female relations who would be either married daughters, or widows or other relations.

Although the joint family is generally idealized, unbroken joint families of three generations are rare, and more so in urban areas, where housing, employment and other factors tend to break it. The shift of emphasis for marriage from the status of the family to the economic independence of the boy, has further been responsible for the gradual loosening of the hold of the joint family.

Property and Inheritance.—The family in this region is patrilineal. The ordinary Hindu Law governs the descent and inheritance of property among Hindus, which is generally in the father's line. There is no evidence of matrilineal descent among the Hindus, though a share in the property in favour of widows and destitute daughters is often allowed, more in the nature of a privilege than a legal right.

The Muslims follow the Islamic Law in this matter and the pro perty is usually divided among the children of the deceased. The daughters are also entitled to a share, although the share is generally

smaller than the sons.' In case of dispute, the matter is referred to the Kazi for arbitration and the decision is generally accepted by all concerned. In case deceased has divorced his wife earlier or had separated from her without paying the *mehr* (alimony), the first right in the property is that of the wife of the deceased. There is no evidence to suggest, that there are any large scale transfers of property through wills.

Marriage and Morals.—Marriage among Hindus is governed by rigid laws, as elsewhere, and is treated as sacred. Even before the passing of the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, whereby bigamy has been prohibited. Hindu marriage in the district was largely monogamous. Polyandry in any form is not practised in Sagar but the presence of polygamy cannot be ruled out in cases, either when a women fails to beget a male heir to the family or if she is mentally unsound, etc. Among Muslims polygamy is permitted by Law and a man can take as many as four wives but in practice there are few instances where this privilege is exercised. Especially the educated section among the Muslims is believed to incline more and more in favour of the prohibition of polygamy.

In respect of marital relationship the traditional caste endogamy is still entrenched among the people and mostly the marriage alliances are made within the limits of the caste units. The prohibition of marriage within the *gotra* or exogamous sections, prevents the marriage of persons related through males. Among Hindus, cousins are regarded as brothers and sisters, and as such marriage between them is not permissible. Further, according to Hindu Law, in contacting marriage one must avoid certain prohibited degrees of kinship. A Brahman must not marry a girl of his mother's or maternal grandfather's *gotra* or one who is *sapinda* of his father or maternal grandfather.

Jijhotias, a local sub-division of Kanaujia sub-caste belongs to Bundelkhand and mainly inhabits Sagar, and the adjoining districts. They 'rank little below the Kanaujias proper and the Sarwarias'. Hypergamy was prevalent among them by which they could give daughters in marriage to the classes above them, but cannot receive daughters from them. But these hypergamous marriages are rare.[1] Similarly, among the Banias of Sagar the principal groups of Agarwal, Gahoi, and Nema sub-castes are edogamous in character. The prohibition on marriage between relations is far reaching among Agarwals. Gahois, who are numerous in the district are further sub-divided in 12 *gotras*. 'Several of the *al* names appear to be of a titular or totemistic character.' Under rule of exogamy, a man must not marry in his own *gotra* nor in the *gotra* of his mother or

1 *Ibid*, Vol. II, pp. 389-90.

grandmother. Another principal sub-caste of Bania, in Sagar, is Nema who probably are a Bundelkhand group. The 14 *gotras* of the sub-caste Nema, bear the names of 14 *rishis* or saints. The *bisa* and *dasa* group among them do not intermarry. The Jains are nearly always Banias by caste, and marriage among them is little more than a civil contract.[1] The Chamars in the district are divided into a number of endogamous sub-castes. Russell observed that a Chamar 'must not take as his wife a person from his own section' nor from the same locality from which his mother or his grandmother comes. "Generally the union of first cousins is prohibited."[2]

Among the Muslims, Russell observed that the marriage is prohibited with certain near relatives, "but not between first cousins. A man cannot marry his foster-mother or foster-sister, unless the foster-brother and sister were nursed by the same women at intervals widely separated A man may not marry his wife's sister during his wife's life time unless she has been divorced."[3] A Muslim 'cannot marry a polytheist'. The four divisions, *viz.*, Shaikh, Saiyad, Mughal, and Pathan are not proper sub-castes as they are not endogamous. A man of one group can marry a women of any other, but the daughter of a Saiyad does not usually marry one, other than Saiyad.

The Khatola Gonds of Sagar rank themselves 'equal with the Raj-Gonds and intermarry with them' Marriage is prohibited only between persons related through males but there is no objection to a Gond marrying a maternal relative[4] Among Savaras, 'marriage is regulated by exogamous septs or *bargas*', and union of "first cousin is sometime forbidden "[5]

Marriage Customs.—Among Hindus, marriage is an important event of one's life, preceded by elaborate preparations. Marriages are still largely negotiated by the parents, and follow the customs and traditions of the caste in all its details. Marriages are as a rule, performed when the boy reaches adult age, though in rural areas. early marriage is still frequently celebrated Adult marriage has narrowed the period between marriage, (*biyah*) and *gauna*, and hence the importance of the latter has been reduced to mere form. The customs and rituals connected with the performance of marriage are

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1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p 49
2. R V. Russell, Op cit, Vol II p 409
3. *Ibid*, Vol I, p. 251.
4. *Ibid*, Vol III, pp. 63, 65
5. *Ibid*, Vol IV, pp 504-05

as varied in certain details as the castes and sub-castes in the district. It is difficult to summarise them all, however, the major rites involved in the consecration of marriage are detailed below.

Phaldan or betrothal rite symbolizes the culmination of the negotiations for the marriage. Prior to it, *janam-patri* (horoscope) of the boy and the girl are generally tallied. In case the horoscope of the girl is found to be unfavourable to the boy, the girl is first symbolically 'married to *arka* or swallow-wort plant', among a section of the people. The ceremony is nominally succeeded by the rite of *oli bharana* in which the would-be bride is presented with some clothes and ornaments, etc., in confirmation of the settlement of marriage. Among the Banias the usual presents are a gold necklace and *mundri* or ring. By mutual consent and with the help of the family priest some auspicious date is settled and the *lagun* rite finally symbolizes it. It is traditional for the marriage to be performed at the girl's house and the marriage party, known as *barat*, consisting of the bridegroom, friends, relations, etc., reaches well in time at the bride's house. The distinctive feature of a Bania wedding in northern districts including Sagar is that "women also accompany the marriage procession"[1] sometimes. The *barat* is received with great courtesy and honour, and is lodged at some suitable, well decorated place, known as *janwasa*. *Dwarpuja* is the first important rite when the *barat* is formally received, and in some communities, brocade or flower garlands are exchanged between the boy and the girl at the door-steps of the house. Among some people the girl only throws rice from inside the house. This is followed by the main ceremonies of *kanyadan*, and *saptpadi* or *bhanwar*. The bridegroom followed by the bride goes round the sacred fire seven times while the *mantras* are recited by the priest. Oaths are also administered among some castes to the bride and the bridegroom to bind them to a marital behaviour. This ceremony marks the completion of the marriage. Other minor rites are also performed which include the *puja* of *Ishtadevta* or *kul-devta*. The last important rite is *bida* which marks the end of marriage ceremony and *barat* returns with the bride to the bridegroom's house.

The rituals and ceremonies connected with the marriage have undergone some changes, mainly in the direction of simplification, during the last about fifty years. Even as early as in 1931, the Census Report observes about Sagar district that "so far as the dowries are concerned the platform oratory and newspaper rhetoric have failed to produce any perceptible change, but dancing girls are really being eschewed at the weddings and are likely to disappear from

1. *Ibid*, Vol. II, p. 122.

these functions in the course of time. There is noticeable decrease in the use of fireworks. These reforms are due as much to economic as to social pressure."[1]

Muslim Marriage.—Among the Muslims, various groups do not encourage inter-group marriage. The rites and rituals connected with marriage among Muslims are largely those prevalent in the rest of the State. Marriage is mostly negotiated by parents. The first important rite is normally known as *mangni*, the ceremony of betrothal. The principal marriage ceremony is *nikah* which is solemnized by a Kazi at an appointed day. The marriage among Muslims is a contract. The Kazi keeps a marriage register, which is signed by the representatives of both the parties. Formal consent of the bride is also taken. The terms of marriage also include the *mehr* or alimony payable to the wife on demand or on dissolution of marriage. The last important rite is known as *rukhsat* which marks the end of the marriage ceremony.

Civil marriages have not, so far, found favour among the people of the district, judging from the very small number of such marriages that were registered. The number of civil marriages registered with the Registration Officer of Sagar district during the last 10 years. under the Special Marriage Act, 1954 was only eight.

Among almost all sections of the community the payment of dowry is still prevalent in some form or the other. Among some castes, such as Chamars, a bride-price on the contrary is paid, the amount of which varies in individual cases. Among the Savaras and Gonds also, this practice of paying a bride-price was prevalent. In Sagar among Savaras, "if the bride's family cannot afford a wedding feast", they used to 'distribute small pieces of bread to the guests', who placed them in their head-dress to signify their acceptance of this substitute.[2]

It has been said that the age of the marriage varies inversely with the status of the caste. and in the early part of the present century, infant marriages were widely prevalent in Sagar and other adjoining Narmada plain area due to the influence of the higher castes. This has, however, undergone considerable modification, since. Formerly, the marital age for boys in the district was 15 years and for girls 9 years.[3] The passing of the Sarda Act in 1929 did not produce any material change among the people of Sagar to-

1. Census of India, 1931, Vol. XII, Pt. 1, p. 175:
2. R. V. Russell, Op. cit., Vol. IV, p. 506.
3. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p. 171.

wards raising the marital age, though a few poor people by necessity, and some educated by choice, began to disregard the custom of early marriage.[1]

The majority of the males and females are now married between the ages of 15 to 24 years. A number of males remain unmarried till late in the 'Twenties a phenomenon not common among the females.

The widows in the higher sections of Hindu society are normally prohibited by customs and practices of the caste, from remarriage. Among Brahmans widow remarriage is strictly prohibited.

Regarding the prevalent customs among Jains, the Census Report of 1931 observes that: "In the doctrines of the Jains little change has taken place in the last 10 years but the Deputy Commissioner, Saugor, mentions that, although widow remarriage is not permissible among them, a new party has now sprung up which advocates such marriages, and there have been a few performed which were countenanced by many in the community."[2]

In the lower sections of society, 'widows commonly remarry' and they may take for their second husband 'any one, other than their near relations' The marriage ceremony for a widow is of the simplest character. Among Chamars of Sagar the new husband "presents his bride with new clothes, vermilion for the parting of her hair, a spangle for her forehead, lac dye for her feet, antimony for the eyes, a comb, glass bangles and betel leaves."[3] Among the small tribal population of Savars and Gonds, widow remarriage is freely permitted; and as a rule she should marry her deceased husband's younger borther. If this is not done, the husband has to pay a sum as compensation to her late husband's family. Divorce has been traditionally looked down upon, and in the higher classes of society especially it is not countenanced. After the enactment of the recent Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, however, there are stray cases of persons even of higher castes taking recourse to divorce. Divorce is also freely permitted, but among Gonds it is rare, since it involves expenditure. Among Savars if wife wishes to have divorce she simply runs awav from her husband. Among other communities, divorce is permitted for certain reasons, and is usually effected in the presence of the Panchayat of the community.

1. Census of India, 1931, Vol. XII, Pt. I, p. 177.
2. *Ibid*, p. 335.
3. R. V. Russell, Op. cit., Vol. II, p. 411.

Among the Muslims divorce is comparatively more simple, whether the initiative is from the husband or the wife. The wife is entitled to the payment of an alimony according to the terms of the marriage contract. Among Muslims, widow remarriage is not prohibited normally.

Rituals at Death.—The dead are usually cremated among the Hindus while they are buried among the Muslims and Christians. On the cremation pyre the head is placed in the northern direction. In the case of still-born children, and of those who have died before the naming ceremony and of persons who die of epidemic diseases they are usually buried even among Hindus. W. D. Sutherland gave the following account of funeral ceremony among the middle and higher castes in Sagar: "When a man is near his end gifts to Brahmans are made by him, or his son on his behalf. These, if he is rich man, consist of five cows with their calves ....the dying man is taken down from his cot and laid on a woollen blanket spread on the ground. .... In the mouth are placed a piece of gold, some leaves of *tulsi* or basil plant, or Ganges water."[1]

A married woman is covered with red cloth up to the neck, while the cropse of widow or girl is wrapped in white cloth, with the head covered.

The son or the person who is the principal mourner, walks at the head of procession with smouldering cowdung in an earthen pot from which the pyre will be kindled. The son walks round the pyre seven times with a water pot pouring water and finally dashes it facing south. On the third day mourners go to the pyre and collect the ashes and immerse them in some sacred river or in the nearest river.

Economic Dependence of Women.—According to the Census of 1951, nearly 62 per cent of the female population consists of 'non-earning dependents', of the rest 25 per cent are 'earning dependents', and only 13 per cent 'self supporting' women. Taking only the agricultural class, the percentage of 'non-earning' female dependents is 56 per cent against 75 per cent in 'non-agricultural class', which shows that women among them are more economically active than their counter-parts in the 'non-agricultural' pursuits. This is further confirmed by the fact that nearly 13 per cent of the female population is 'self supporting' and 31 per cent 'earning dependents' among the agricultural population. whereas the corresponding figures in the non-agricultural population are only 11 per cent and 14 per cent, respectively.

1. *Ibid*, Vol. IV, p. 74.

Drinking and Gambling.—The habits of drinking and gambling are prevalent in the district.The number of offences against the excise and opium laws registered in Sagar in 1958-59 were 600, which after an increase in 1959-60 to 764, declined to 465 in 1960-61. The same trend is repeated in regard to the offences of illicit distillation. In 1958-59 the cases of the type were 218 which after an increase in the following year to 228, declined to 176 in 1960-61. In 1946-47, 33 anti-drink committees were formed in Sagar-cum-Damoh district, but later on in 1948-49 these were abolished due to the lack of interest shown by its members.The evil of gambling is prevalent equally among the old and young. The official figures of offences were 303 in 1957, 315 in 1958 and 283 in 1959. Since these figures are only of cases detected, they do not indicate the extent of gambling prevailing in society. In villages, gambling is usually seasonal as during Diwali.

Home Life

Of the total 1,37,702 occupied houses in the district, according to 1951 Census, nearly 1,15,145 were in rural and 22,557 in urban areas.[1] The former contain nearly 81 per cent of the population while the latter house 19 per cent. The number of occupied houses per square miles on an average in Sagar district is 36.5, while in urban areas due to more congestion there are 940 houses to a sq mile. However, in the rural areas the number is as low as 31 per sq. mile.

Dwelling.—Commonly, five different types of dwellings are found in the rural areas which are locally known as *taparias, ghar, ghar* with a verandah, *bakhar* and *atari*. In the towns there are also in addition, *havelis*, bungalows, and quarters built on modern lines.

The simplest type of dwelling in the rural areas, known as *taparia* or a hut, is a one-room structure with walls made of thatch and mud, often it is plastered with cowdung mixed with chaff and mud. The roofs are made of either thatch or, rarely, tiles. These dwellings are made by the people, by their own labour, and they use it for practically all purposes *viz.*, cooking, storing the grains, water and fuel, sleeping and living. Often the same roof is shared by cattle too. The *ghar* is a slightly better type of dwelling, and is usually a structure with one or more rooms. It also has a court-yard enclosed with a small parapet wall, usually plastered

1. In 1961 the number of occupied residential houses was 1,63,374 (1,30,071 rural and 33,303 urban).

with cowdung, chaft, etc. A corner is generally used for washing and bathing purposes while the other may be used for keeping a fire in winter. A small thatched screen is also raised to partition the room, the smaller portion being generally used for various purposes including *bidi* making, besides serving as a common sitting and sleeping place. The material used in the construction of walls is generally locally obtained.

A *ghar* with verandah does not, however, differ much from the above type except in respect of accommodation. The verandah is commonly used for either cooking or for keeping cattle. The material used for roofs and walls does not, however, differ from that of a *ghar*, and is obtained locally.

Yet another type of dwelling which is comparatively spacious, is commonly known as *bakhar* consisting of a few rooms, verandah, etc. It has sufficient living space to accommodate comfortably the members of the family and guests also. In the house of this type, the main entrance opens into a long room which serves as the cattle-shed and for keeping agricultural and other work-implements. This opens into a rectangular courtyard known as *angan* surrounded by verandahs on all the sides, which are put to different uses, *viz.*, cooking, sleeping and sitting. In the middle of the courtyard there is almost always a *tulsi* plant. The corners of the courtyard, which are sometimes screened, are usually used for bathing and washing. The rooms adjoining the verandahs are used for storing of grains and household goods and sleeping. A few *bakhars* have a verandah in front which generally serves as a common sitting place. The *bakhars* sometimes accommodate more than one family, each having a separate portion of the courtyard for bathing and water storage.

Atari, which is generally a two-storied building of the type of *bakhar*, is generally owned by the upper strata of the society, and is mostly found in towns.

Inspite of the gradual improvement of sanitation in the dwelling places, the traditional type of houses remain poorly ventilated, and many of them are shared by man and cattle, alike. Bathing and washing facilities are largely of a primitive nature and there is little or on provision of hygienic latrines in the houses.

The houses in the towns are usually costlier, and are built of better material. Generally, they are built on a higher plinth with higher roofs and are better ventilated. Separate bathrooms and latrines are generally provided in such houses

Furniture and Decoration.—Furniture and decoration in the rural houses are generally of the barest minimum, and are traditional and indigenous. In most of the houses of the poorer classes there are one or two low wooden seats, a small *dari* and one or two small light framed bed-steads, strung with ropes. The villager usually sits on the ground and sometimes stones are used for sitting round the fire. The household furniture in the houses of the well-to-do villagers is more elaborate, and the sophisticated arm-chairs and cots have found their way into these village homes.

The middle-class people of urban areas use chairs, tables, *mudha* and better type of cots With the influence of urban ways of life, these houses have curtains for their doors and windows, and covers and cushions for their chairs. Commonly, the outer room is arrange-ed as a drawing-room (*baithak*). Gradually in urban areas people are adopting, more and more, the western modes of furnishing and decorating their houses, and a sense of better living seems to prevail in these circles.

Dress and Ornaments.—Men commonly wear a *dhoti* which is tied in three or four different styles. Among the lower classes it reaches just below the knees, while among the upper-strata and educated people it touches the ankles. Striped or white pyjamas are popular with younger-folk, while shirts and shorts are common among the boys. Trousers are rarely seen in the villages, though they are popular among the educated people of the towns. The upper-garment of a common villager is *saluka*—half sleeved buttoned-up and without collar garment with two or three pockets. Besides, the old type *kurta* is still worn by some people of the higher classes. Shirts and the new type of *kurtas* are also becoming popular. *Fatoi* or a jacket is also worn over a *kurta*. Vests, both knitted and made of cloth are not only worn as under-garments, but they are often the only upper-garments. Lately, bush-shirts are gaining ground on fairly large scale, even in rural areas.

In winter the traditional clothings are *mirzai nimastin* and *bandi*. *Mirzai* is a kind of light jacket with long sleeves, which is stuffed with cotton. When the sleeves are short it is known as *nimastin*. *Bandi* or a jacket has short sleeves made out of woollen or cotton cloth. Among the educated classes the western type of coats are also in use. Knitted woollen sweaters are also popular. The villagers sometimes wrap round them a *razai* in winter. The *angochha* or *saphi* a coloured striped cloth, usually thin and a yard or so in length is generally kept by villagers either tied on the head or slung on the shoulder. It is used for a variety of purposes, besides

serving as a towel. *Safa* or *pheta,* the traditional head-gear is still in vogue and it is customary to wear it while going out. Turbans of fine coloured cloth are usually worn by the well-to-do people of higher castes, especially the Thakur, while the 'Gandhi cap', has, of late, become the popular head-gear in villages and towns. The Muslims of the district occasionally wear their special round caps.

Among women, the traditional bright coloured sari is worn in indigenous style, with a part of the sari being drawn between the legs and tucked at the back, in a form called *kachhota*. *Lehengas*, usually of red colour, are also worn with *orhni* draped over the shoulders Formerly the saris used to be of seven to nine yards in length, but now they are shorter and measure five to six yards. Women also now a days wear a *lehenga* as a petticoat or under-garment over which the sari is draped.

The upper-garment among women is commonly known as *polka, angia* or *choli*, which is a kind of blouse with half or full sleeves. It is either tied up behind at the back, or buttoned in the front. They are made either of cotton or woollen cloth according to the season. Jackets, stuffed with cotton with or without sleeves are also worn in winter Readymade garments are also coming into vogue especially among the younger generation, and are often purchased in the weekly *hats*. Among the higher classes it was customary for women to wrap their upper portion of the body with an extra five feet of cloth, called *chadar* or *pichhora* while going out, but this is gradually disappearing

The people in the district generally use the town-made shoes purchased from the nearest weekly market. However, at places *panhaiya* the traditional foot wear is still worn by the villagers. The *jhubbedar* shoes are now rarely seen. *Chappals* made of leather or rubber are used by the women-folk in the urban area. As a result of this change, the age old craft of Chamars, who used to manufacture the *panhaiya* is fast decaying and they have now taken up field labour or rolling bidis.

Ornaments.—The people are proverbially fond of ornaments. Bronze and Copper ornaments are gradually giving way to gold and silver, though gold ornaments are only found among the rich village community.

Rich men of some communities wear neck chain, locally known as *sankar*. The Thakurs or Rajputs often wear *kathla*, a string necklace with a gold locket. Other ornaments in use among males

are *bala*, a gold ear-ring worn at the helix region; *murki* a small gold ear-ring and *bari* (also worn by ladies), a gold ear-ring slightly larger than *bala*. The women-folk of the district commonly wear *kangna, churia, gajria, banke, bangu* and *bagmohi* on the arms. The ornaments worn on the nose, neck and ear resemble those worn in the adjoining district of Damoh. The more common of these are *pungaria*, circular nose-stud of gold. Ornaments worn round the neck are, *suta, khangoria*, (a solid silver necklace), *takar* (a rupee necklace), *sankar* (a silver chain), *bari* and *karnaphul* (silver ear-studs). *Bichhia*, toe-ring, is invariably worn by the married ladies. Silver rings known as *mundari* are worn on the fingers. The women also wear *lachha*, a thin twisted silver wire anklet. Usually six to eight such pieces are worn on each anklet. *Payal*, a kind of chain anklet is also worn sometimes. Tattooing among the women-folk is also popular in the district.

Food.—As a rule, the people of the district, both urban and rural, have three principal meals a day. Early in the morning prior to going to the fields the villagers take *kaleva*—consisting of *roti* or *chapati* with *gur* or pickles and *sattu* (mixture of wheat, millet and gram powder). Those who can afford also take *laddu, khurma, batiya, puri, milk*, etc., for the breakfast. Unrefined sugar or jaggery even *mahua* flowers, sometimes are also taken instead of sugar by poorer people. In the urbanised villages, it is becoming increasingly common for the villager to take tea in the morning.

The mid-day meal *roti-khana*, usually consists of *roti* of either wheat or jowar, or mixture of wheat and gram and seasonally of urd. Other accessories are *dal* (pulses) and vegetable curry. The well-to-do people have both *dal* and curry. Curry made of butter milk is also popular alongwith *papad* and pickles. Rice is an occasional preparation, and taken with milk is a common delicacy for persons who can afford it. On ceremonial occasions, sweet dishes are also prepared out of rice, milk and sugar.

The supper *beyari*, taken late in the evening usually consists of *roti* and *dal*. On festival occasions the items of food are increased to some extent so as to include *luchai* (bread fried in ghee), *bari* potato-curry, *dal, bhat*, etc. While going on a journey the usual food carried by the people consists of *puri, satua, khurma, batiya* and *laddu* which can last for a few days.

Non-vegetarian food does not form a part of the daily diet, though, goat and fish are taken occasionally by people in several sections, excepting mainly the Brahmans and the Jains.

Utensils.—The villagers, as a matter of fact, do not use many cooking utensils. Common in use are *handi*, a round earthen pot used for cooking rice and *dal*, shallow pan for frying *puri*, *tawa*, *karchhali* an iron-rake, *kopar*, *tathi*, *ghagra*; *charu*; etc. The use of large plates of brass and bell-metal for serving food, etc., is also common.

Amusements.—Normally the villagers have little time or facilities for amusements and recreation. In their leisure hours they either gather at a common place for gossip or story telling, singing, posing of riddles, and sometimes listening to *Ramayan* and *bhajans*, etc. A game of cards, chess, *chaupad*, etc., provides a more exciting recreation. The film, either through a travelling cinema or through Government agencies, and the radio under the community listening scheme are diversions which have still to penetrate to all the villages.

Communal Life.

Festivals and Fairs.—The festivals provide rare occasion for the villagers, when they temporarily forget the monotonous and drab existence of life and allow themselves to be driven by the ecstasy and joy at festival time. The festival cycle in the district starts with *Akhti* or *Akhtij* in the bright fortnight of Vaisakha, which marks the beginning of agricultural work; Pakh-bandhi in the month of Asadha to get good rains and bumper crop; Nag Panchami in Sravana to prevent snake bite, Hariyari, on new-moon day in Sravana, when people worship *kul-deota* (*Burha Deo*); Rakhi when sisters tie *rakhi* on the wrists of brothers and express affection; Khajulia, Pola, for the welfare of bullocks; Janam Ashtami; Tija and Harchat to secure the welfare of the husband and the children, respectively. These five festivals occur in the month of Bhadra. In the month of Asvina falls Navratra for nine days, to invoke divine protection for members of the family; Dussehra when goddess Kali is worshipped; Diwali when goddess of wealth-Laxmi is worshipped. Devuthani Ekadashi which marks the beginning of marriage season which came to close with Bhadra Navami, falls in the month of Kartik. In the month of Pausa falls Makar-Snakranti when Shankerji is worshipped. Basant Panchami, Shivratri, Holi, fall in the month of Phalguna. Holi is riotously gay, when people squirt coloured powder, water, etc., on each other. Bonfires are lit, which symbolise the burning of *Holika* and destruction of Evil. Navratra again comes in the month of Chaitra followed by Ram Navami to commemorate the birth anniversary of Ramchandraji.

Besides, Mahavira Jayanti and Parushan Parva among the Jains, Shab-i-Barat, Ramzan, Id-ul-Fitr, Id-uz-Zuha, Muharram and Id-i-Milad are important Muslim festivals.

Songs and Dances.—The people of Sagar possess a rich heritage ot songs and dances. The most popular folk-dances commonly known are, *baredi, moni, saira* and *dhimaryai*. *Baredi* is a folk-dance of cattle herds who often perform it immediately after Diwali festival. *Moni* dance derives its name from the practice of observing silence throughout the day the dance is performed. *Saira* dance is performed with sticks in hand, usually accompanied with meaningful and melodious songs. *Dhimaryai* is a folk-dance of Dhimars or water carriers.

Yet another communal dance, locally known as *rai* is a very important recreational dance performed by Bednis, the professional dancers, who accompanied by the entire troupe consisting of drummers and singers, etc., move from one village to another on invitation. Generally, when the harvesting is over and the crop has been plentiful the people enjoy the *rai* dance.

A large variety of folk-songs are sung in the district, suited to the season, festivity, or occassion. Bailads like *Alha* are sung like those of Basudeo. *Bhajans* and *Ramayan-path* are favourite songs, but more interesting is perhaps, group singing, accompanied with the *tabla*, etc. Women collectively sing *dadra* to the accompaniment of *dholak*. Some villagers have organised these activities and formed associations like Ramayan-mandli, Natak-mandli, Mahila-mandal, youth clubs, etc.

Games.—Popular public games for men are locally known as *kabbadi, gapni-samundra, Gadagend* and *Chaupad, etc.* Among men volley-ball is very popular in towns and big villages. *Kuiya* is another game of skill in which coins are tried to be thrown in a particular spot. Among the youngesters, top-balls, hide and seek, *gulli danda, atthu* a kind of *chaupad* are common. In Sravana they enjoy dancing and fighting on stilts, which is popular with youngmen. *Chapelas, dolls, kana* and *chaupal* are favourite games among girls.

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

Agriculture is the mainstay of the people of Sagar and provides livelihood to a large bulk of the population of the district, including cultivators of land whether owned or unowned, cultivating labourers and agricultural rentiers The Census of 1951 had recorded 67 per cent of the people including their dependants as subsisting on agricultural occupations. Sagar tahsil had the lowest percentage, being 52, on account of the preponderance of professional and industrial population. In other tahsils it was 72 per cent or above. The following Table shows the livelihood pattern according to tahsils:—

S. No.	Name of Tahsil	Total Population	Agricultural Classes	Percentage	Non-agricultural Classes	Percentage
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	Sagar	2,39,993	1,24,452	52	1,15,541	48
2	Khurai	1,52,163	1,09,961	72	42,202	28
3	Banda	92,391	76,811	83	15,580	17
4	Rehli	1,51,644	1,13,353	75	38,291	25
	Total District	6,36,191	4,24,577	67	2,11,614	33

Source:—Sagar District Census Handbook, 1951.

Among those who pursue the calling of agriculture, the Lodhis are professional agriculturists, while the Kachhis are excellent cultivators interested in intensive agriculture, irrigation and garden crops. They practise irrigation wherever possible on a small-scale and show great skill in the intensive cultivation of small plots of land. The Dangis are also a fine body of agriculturists, while the Kurmis are excellent and comparatively thrifty cultivators. Ahirs and Ghosis are primarily graziers but they also cultivate, just as conversely, the cultivating castes also often keep large herds. The Chamar, Gond, Sonar, Chadar and Khangar castes usually supply agricultural labour.

Sagar district is the principal producer of wheat and gram in the State, contributing eight per cent and two per cent, respectively, of the total area sown under these crops in the whole State in 1958-59. In the same year wheat occupied 53.9 per cent of the total cropped area of the district. Jowar and gram covered 9.1 per cent and

9 per cent. respectively, of the entire sown area. Ninety per cent of the total cropped area is devoted to the production of foodgrains, while oilseeds account for 8.8 per cent. Only the residual 1.2 per cent is used for other crops.

LAND UTILISATION

In the year 1915-16, the area of the district according to the Surveyor General of India was 25,54,899 acres, while the area according to village papers was 25,23,668 acres, showing a difference of 31,231 acres. In 1959-60 the respective area figures were recorded as 25,35,046 and 25,34,730 acres, the latter figure being short only by 316 acres. The discrepancy is due to the difference in procedures of measurement and calculation of area.

The forests have been defined to include all actually forested areas of lands classed or administered as forests under any legal enactment, whether State-owned or private. Forest area has remained almost unchanged till the year 1950-51, *viz.,* about 4.80 lakh acres constituting 19 per cent of the total district area. Subsequent village papers, however, have recorded it as above seven lakh acres, and the percentage in consequence rose to about 29. The sudden increase in the figures of forest area has occurred on account of the change in classification of forest area. Till the year 1950-51 only that area which belonged to the Forest Department was included in forest area. Due to a change of instructions from 1951-52, the whole of the area under forests whether 'Reserved' or *malguzari* is being taken as forest area.

Land not available for cultivation includes land put to non-agricultural uses, *i.e.,* buildings, roads, rivers and barren and unculturable land, like mountains, deserts, etc. This land has varied between very low limits and has stood at about 1.24 lakh acres in 1958-59, *i.e,* about 4.95 per cent of the district area.

Culturable waste lands, *viz.,* land available for cultivation but not taken up for cultivation or abandoned after a few years for one reason or the other, were recorded as 8.70 lakh acres or 34.5 per cent of the district area in 1915-16. They covered 9.26 lakh acres (36.6 per cent) in 1937-38. In 1938-39, Government of India issued instructions to the effect that only the area which was definitely known to be culturable was to be shown separately instead of the entire uncultivated area shown before. A new class of land, 'Permanent pastures and other grazing lands' was carved out of it. These lands were further split up when a new class 'Miscellaneous tree crops and groves' came into existence. Thus during the last 10 years, a marked

fall in the area of cultivable waste land is perceptible. An area of 2.58 lakh acres was classed as 'Permanent pastures and grazing lands' in 1950-51. In the subsequent year, this area rose to 3.65 lakh acres (14.4 per cent) and after some decrease shot up to 4.44 lakh acres (17.6 per cent) in 1957-58 and 4.86 lakh acres (19.2 per cent) in 1959-60.

All agriculture depends upon adequate supply of moisture. It is more so in the case of Sagar where sources of artificial irrigation are meagre. If the rainfall is adequate and well-distributed and the weather conditions are favourable at the sowing time, larger areas are brought under the plough. Otherwise, a large part of the land is left fallow. Double-cropping in the absence of irrigation facilities wholly depends upon the exigencies of late monsoon. It is the copious late monsoon down-pour which provides sufficient moisture to the soil for raising a second crop. Thus the double-cropped area varies closely with the rainfall figures of the late monsoon. It has usually varied between two and three per cent of the net cropped area and reached even six per cent when the rains were favourable. This practice is followed in a limited area consisting of rice growing fields lying round the village sites and artificially embanked wheat fields or naturally depressed plots which catch the drainage of the surrounding fields.

Economic factors also affect the pattern of land utilization. Prevailing high prices give added incentive to the farmers to bring as much of the land as possible under the plough. Cultivated area increased under the stimulus of high prices current during the two World Wars The Economic Depression of the 'Thirties which brought about a precipitous fall in the prices of agricultural commodities and diminished the resources of the agricultural community threw the marginal land out of cultivation Thus, the extent of fallow lands, of net area sown, double-cropped area and total cropped area are all inter-related and are influenced by both climatic and economic facts.

State action also leads to an expansion in the cultivated area. Cultivation expanded under the impact of the Grow More Food Campaign which was initiated as a State policy during the Second World War for stepping up agricultural production. The downward trend in cropped area which started in 1944-45 and continued till 1947-48 was arrested by the promulgation of the C. P. and Berar Fallow Lands Ordinance (No. VI of 1948) which was later replaced in the same year by an Act laying down a statutory duty on a holder to bring a specified area of his fallow land under cultivation. A subsidy of Rs. 2 per acre of fallow land broken up was granted.

Though the enforcement of this Act presented several difficulties its effect was generally satisfactory, and the cropped area increased in succeeding years.

Infestation by *kans*, a pernicious weed, presented a formidable problem in the district in the extension of cultivation. As a result of the vigorous measures taken for *kans* eradication there was a steady reduction in the fallow and culturable wastelands, the two categories in which such lands are included, and a corresponding increase in cropped area.

During the period of 1915-16 to 1952-53 the net cropped area varied between 9.87 lakh acres (1915-16) or 39.10 per cent of the total area of district, and 8.58 lakh acres (1929-30) or 33.95 per cent of the district area. The peak was reached in 1952-53 when a million acres began yielding crops. In the year 1956-57, the first year of the Second Five Year Plan an all time high record of 10.86 lakh acres (42.90 per cent) was established.

Culturable Waste

Land utilisation statistics of the Sagar district for the year 1959-60, put the culturable waste lands at 143,661 acres, which works out to 5.7 per cent of the total area of the district. The Wastelands Survey and Reclamation Committee in their Report for Madhya Pradesh (1961) observed that the extent of the arable waste lands available in the State was much less than that reported in the revenue records and that the bulk of the waste lands was found in blocks smaller than 250 acres. Results of this scrutiny are tabulated below:[1]

Size of Blocks	Number of Blocks	Area (acres)
(1)	(2)	(3)
Below 15 acres	112,117 (98.93)	133,224 (79.32)
15-30 acres	883 (00.78)	18,013 (10.72)
30-50 acres	234 (00.20)	8,705 (5.18)
50-100 acres	85 (00.08)	(5,832) (3.47)
Above 100 acres	12 (00.01)	2,192 (1.31)
Total	11,331 (100)	167,966 (100)

1. Report on Location and Utilization of Wastelands in India, Part IV, p. 8

It is clear from the above Table that the bulk of the wasteland is widely scattered in small pieces of less than 15 acres. No block having an area of 250 acres or above was located. Until a detailed survey is made it may not be possible to state precisely the reasons for such lands remaining uncultivated nor would it be possible to indicate the difficulties that might have to be overcome in bringing such lands under cultivation

The State Government is now taking vigorous steps in the disposal of wastelands by allotting them to landless labourers and the members of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Besides, culturable wastelands have also been allotted to individual cultivators during the years 1957-58 and 1958-59 amounting to 12,324 and 5,640 acres, respectively.

A special feature of the agricultural problems in this district is the presence of *kans* infested lands Thousands of acres of land has been lost to this weed. and cultivation of crops has been ousted, so that the land has been lying fallow or yielding very little crops.

Kans has been one of the principal enemies of the cultivator in this district for many years. In the Settlement Report of 1867, there is a reference to "the serious injury done to the cultivation by rapid growth of *kans* grass in lands indifferently tilled or allowed to lie fallow which was found to exist extensively and to have spread rapidly in various parts of the district". Mr G. L Corbett. Settlement Officer in his Settlement Report of the district for the years 1911-16 has said "The climate is the cultivators worst enemy. Next is the *kans* weed (*Saccharum spontaneum*) which often follows on seasonal calamity and retards recovery. *Kans,* as it has been remarked, is the result rather than the cause of misfortune. It appears at once, probably by seeding. whenever cultivated black soil is not properly weeded; that is. when it is sown broadcast with Kharif or when it is left unsown altogether, or again, when monsoon ploughings are neglected or prevented by continuous rains. Mund soils seem peculiarly susceptible to attack."[1]

Once a field is over-run by this weed. it is impossible to raise good crops. and a stage is soon reached when the land becomes unfit for cultivation and is abandoned altogether. For a few years the cultivator fights manfully but it is a losing battle. The only remedy is to undertake mechanical operations to root out this weed.

As a sequel to the Grow More Food Campaign and the realisation of the need to bring more land under plough, a rapid survey

1 Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911-16, p. 9.

of the *kans*-infested land was made during 1943-44 in this district, and it was found that no less than four lakh acres of land was lying fallow as a result of *kans* growth, and an equal acreage was not giving normal out-turn of Rabi crops. According to another estimate the extent of *kans*-infested fallow lands was 9 27,640 acres, and of *kans*-infested cultivated lands was 1,11,700 acres, thus aggregating to over million acres.[1]

The *kans* area was the largest and most compactly situated in Khurai tahsil which had to face a severe failure of crops till 1947. A reclamation scheme by the Central Tractor Organization was initiated at Khurai on 16th March 1948.

The scheme achieved striking success in the first year, and though the area actually ploughed was only 6.647 acres, the tractor-ploughed lands yielded a 50 per cent higher out-turn. During the years 1947-48 to 1957-58 when the scheme was in operation in the district a total of 246,279 acres were tractor-ploughed out of which 72,048 acres were fallow lands and 174,231 acres consisted of cultivated lands.

An incidental benefit of tractor-ploughing was the consolidation of agricultural holdings. Holdings were consolidated in areas which were to be tractor-ploughed. Consolidation preceded tractor-ploughing.

IRRIGATION

Irrigation Facilities

A succession of disastrous famines at the end of the 19th Century and the beginning of the present Century brought home imperative need of creating irrigation facilities, while the heavy cost of famine relief in 1899-1900 impressed on the administration the need for irrigation works as a protection against the recurrence of similar disasters. Little appears to have been done to develop irrigation since the formation of the Central Provinces to the close of the last Century State irrigation originated as a result of the recommendations of the Irrigation Commission, which itself was the product of the recommendations of the Famine Commission of 1898, whose views were endorsed by the subsequent Famine Commission of 1901.

During the first decade of the present Century work was primarily confined to investigations of probable irrigation schemes. Six irrigation tank schemes were surveyed in detail and estimates, etc.,

1. Madhya Pradesh Krishi Darshan, p. 230.

were kept ready so that they could be put into operation if the district were to face again an untoward situation due to famine or scarcity.

The schemes were: —

Name of Scheme	Tahsil	Total Capacity of Tank	Irrigation Capacity in Average Years	Probable Cost of Project	Average Cost per mil. cft. of Water Available for Irrigation
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		mil cft.	acres	Rs.(000)	Rs.
1. Gadola	Khurai ..	44.80	400	27.8	798
2. Tila	Sagar	94.42	947	93.7	1,138
3. Rajawar Budhona ..	Sagar	103.59	1,137	135.4	1,366
4. Goolai Lohara	Khurai .	28.33	289	43.5	1,726
5. Khwaja Khori	Khurai .	43.29	405	46.8	1,323
9. Pagara	Sagar . ..	42.29	477	79.9	1,921

One of the first irrigation works that was completed in Sagar district was the Narayanpura tank. The project was commenced in 1913 and completed in 1916 The dam has a total length of 3,750 feet and a maximum height of 37.6 ft. The catchment area of the tank covered 2 3 sq. miles and the irrigable area commanded by the tank through its 2.57 miles of canals was 382 acres.

At the beginning of the present Century Mr. G. M. Harriot who was the then Second Secretary of the Chief Commissioner in the Public Works Department (Irrigation Branch) made some proposals to the Government for the development of irrigation. His main recommendation was to protect the rice growing tracts because it was this crop which was most vulnerable if there was a failure of monsoons. As a result of his recommendations, the Government set up three Irrigation Divisions for detailed investigation of irrigation sites. Sagar district was included in the Western Circle of the Nerbudda Irrigation Division.

This Western Circle of the Nerbudda Irrigation Division fully investigated sites upto 1921 and prepared detailed plan estimates in

regard to them. The plan estimates and other details are now kept with the Executive Engineer, Irrigation. The sites surveyed were at Gadgora (Banda), Titarpani (Rehli), Udaipura (Sagar), Sattadhana (Sagar), Bina (Sagar), Bila (Banda), Chandianala (Banda) and Kangra.

Out of these eight schemes, the Government took up the construction of Chandia reservoir in Banda tahsil in the year 1921. Work on Ratona tank had been started a year earlier, that is, in the year 1920.

Development of irrigation received a set-back in the Province when as a result of the recommendations of the Irrigation Committee in 1928, all new construction works were stopped and Irrigation Branch of the Public Works Department was abolished. In fact, no work for the creation of irrigation facilities in the district had been undertaken from the year 1927 onwards till the War intervened and put into bold relief the pressing need for stepping up agricultural production in the country. The Grow More Food Campaign was initiated and realising that the development of agriculture into an organised industry will only be possible when the element of uncertainty of weather is substantially countered, the following steps were taken to extend irrigation:—

(1) Construction and repair of wells. (Taccavi was advanced at concessional rate of interest).

(2) Construction and repair of small tanks, (Taccavi was granted at concessional rate of interest If the conditions of the loans were fully observed one-half of the loan was taken as subsidy).

(3) Village Project Scheme for construction of tanks and *bunds* over small nullahs.

(4) Big irrigation works which were the responsibility of the Public Works Department.

(5) Purchase of *rahats*, (Taccavi was allowed at concessional rate of interest of which 25 per cent was treated as subsidy in the 5th year).

(6) Purchase of pumping sets for which provision of Taccavi existed.

With the initiation of the Community Development Programme in the year 1954, irrigation became one of the important items of agricultural development and the farming community was also keen to avail itself of the water for irrigating their fields. To

fulfil the need of a technical officer at the district level, a Minor Irrigation Sub-Division was started on 14th October, 1958, under the supervision of an Executive Engineer (Irrigation) with headquarters at Damoh. With the setting up of this office and the appointment of Irrigation Overseers at each Block an impetus had been given to the survey and execution of works. During the course of the Second Five Year Plan, the following works have been constructed :—

Name of Work (1)	Tahsil (2)	Cost (Estimated) (3)	Proposed Irrigation (4)
		Rs.	Acres
1. Tigoda Anicut	Banda	1,17,000	360
2. Banda Regulator	Do.	39,000	160
3. Sagar Lake Regulator	Sagar	39,700	150
4. Khodi Simariya	Rehli	31,900	100
5. Parasari Anicut	Sagar	2,03,200	400
6. Bhorai Nullah Anicut	Rehli	99,800	400
7. Sanodha Regulator	Sagar	38,700	100
8. Rasulla Anicut	Khurai	39,500	60
9. Khimlasa Anicut	Do.	2,87,700	400

The works detailed below were taken up for construction from 15th January, 1961 :—

Name of Work (1)	Tahsil (2)	Estimated Cost (3)	Proposed Irrigation (4)
		Rs.	Acres
1. Nonna Nullah Regulator	Rehli	43,750	100
2. Simaria Nullah Regulator	Do.	15,250	100
3. Sagar Nullah Regulator	Do.	41,150	100
4. Mohiya Nullah Regulator	Do.	46,395	100

Designs and estimates of the following works have been prepared for the year 1961-62:—

	Name of Work	Tahsil	Estimated Cost	Proposed Irrigation
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
			Rs.	Acres
1.	Khairana Regulator	Rehli	43,800	150
2.	Lidhora Regulator	Sagar	48,800	150
3.	Dhanora Regulator	Khurai ..	49,200	200
4.	Pilhera Regulator	Sagar	50,000	150

The following large projects have also been included for implementation during the Third Plan period:—

	Name of Project	Estimated Cost
	(1)	(2)
		Rs. in Lakhs
1	Bhojpura	7.00
2	Gharda	2.00
3	Teora	0 82
4	Binaika	0.80
5	Baroda	0.60
6	Bilhera Regulator	0.50
7	Papet Regulator	0 44
8	Paparia	0.60
9	Basari	1.00
10	Kakerara	1 00
11	Tigra	1.00

Bila River Project—The biggest project in the district is the Bila River Project which was approved by the Planning Commission in August 1960. It envisages the construction of a masonry dam with earthen flanks across the Bila river, near village Daulchipur in

Sagar district. The dam will rise to a maximum height of 104 ft. (32 m) and create a reservoir of gross capacity of 2,100 mil. cft. (59.4 mil cum) by intercepting the waters from a catchment of 57.4 sq. miles (148 sq km). The average annual rainfall is 42.85 in. (78 cm.) and the average annual yield is about 2,248 mil cft. (76 mil. cum). The main dam will comprise 1,326 ft. (404 m.) of earth dam and 594 ft. (181 m.) of masonry dam including an overflow spillway of 270 ft. (82 m.).

The regulated waters released from the reservoir will be picked up by a weir 5,118 ft. (1,560 m.) long across the same river just below the confluence of Prasad Nullah with the Bila river. Two canals, one on either side of the pick up weir, with their distribution system will irrigate 32,000 acres (12,950 ha) annually. The project is estimated to cost Rs. 1.57 crores.[1]

Area Irrigated

The extent of cultivated area under irrigation has never been appreciable in Sagar district. At the 30 years' Settlement and the subsequent Settlement, the area irrigated consisted of only 6,349 and 7,972 acres, respectively, i.e., 0.9 per cent and 0.8 per cent of the cropped area. In the year 1894-95, irrigated area amounted to 6,910 acres which worked out to barely 0.6 per cent of the cultivated area. A Table showing the irrigated area and sources of irrigation from the year 1915-16 to 1960-61 may be seen at Appendix A-11 which reveals the appalling state of irrigation in the district. From the year 1915-16 to 1948-49 the irrigated area was above 10,000 acres only in the years 1942-43 and 1943-44.

For all the remaining years during the period, the irrigated area was below the 10,000 acres mark. From the year 1949-50 onwards the irrigated area always remained above 10,000 acres and the cultivated area receiving irrigation remained above one per cent. This development is attributable to the emphasis placed on the expansion of irrigation facilities during the Post-Independence period.

Sources of Irrigation

Wells have up to this day remained by far the most important source of irrigation. It is only during the years 1939-40 to 1948-49 that there was a sudden and unaccountable shrinkage in the area irrigated by wells. At the time of 30 years' Settlement there were only 3,301 irrigation wells which increased to 3,651 at the next Settlement. In the year 1894-95 the number of wells recorded was

1. Bhagirath, Monthly Magazine, (Delhi), November 1960, pp. 218-219

3,190 (1,395 temporary and 1,795 permanent) irrigating 5,700 acres, i.e., 90 per cent of the total area irrigated. When the practice of sugarcane cultivation fell due to competition from cheap imported sugar, well irrigation which was the main source of watering sugarcane fields, also declined considerably The system of irrigation was most developed in the northern half of Banda tahsil where there were a number of durable wells and Rabi crops were irrigated from this source This system was also prevalent, though in lesser degree in the north and north-east of Sagar tahsil and in Rehli tahsil, where water is found at 20 to 40 ft. below the surface. For lifting water from the wells, Persian wheels were used in the Banda tahsil whereas *motes* were in vogue elsewhere.

In the year 1960-61, 6,643 wells were used for irrigation out of which 66 (27 masonry and 39 non-masonry) were Government wells and 6,577 (5,753 masonry and 824 non-masonry) private wells. Number of wells having independent ayacut was 5,032 which irrigated 9,281 acres which came to 64 per cent of the total area irrigated. In the same year 137 tubewells were also recorded out of which 10 were Government and 127 were private.

Other sources of irrigation are comparatively less important. In the year 1949-50, canals irrigated 3,193 acres, *i.e*, 29.5 per cent of the total area under all forms of irrigation. In 1960-61, canal irrigated area had increased to 4,301 acres and formed 30 per cent of the aggregate irrigated area In 1960-61, there were five Government canals with a total length of 19 miles. There are no private canals in the district.

Tanks.—At the first two Settlements, 10 and 94 artificial tanks, respectively, were recorded. In the year 1894-95, the number of artificial irrigation tanks was 23 and the area irrigated by tanks 203 acres, *i.e.*, three per cent of irrigated area. In 1922-23 tanks irrigated 552 acres, *i e*, seven per cent of irrigated area and in 1960-61, the figures were 325 and two per cent, respectively. In 1960-61 five reservoirs and 13 tanks were reported to exist in the district. Out of the tanks, two were with ayacuts 100 acres or more and the rest with ayacuts less than 100 acres.

Crops Irrigated

In the year 1894-95, sugarcane, garden crops and miscellaneous food crops, were the only crops of any importance, which were irrigated. These three crops covered 1,376 acres, 325 acres and 231 acres, respectively. Apart from these, paddy to the extent of only 200 acres was raised by irrigation. Scantiness of irrigation in itself militates

against the extension of irrigation on any significant scale. As late as in the year 1957-58, only 1,481 acres of paddy, 6,205 acres of wheat, 691 acres of gram, 417 acres of sugarcane and 1,228 acres of potatoes were irrigated. In relation to the total area covered by each of these crops, the irrigated area works out only to five per cent of paddy, one per cent of wheat, 0.8 per cent of gram and 83 per cent of sugarcane.

Field Embankments—There is yet another method of providing moisture to the soil. Though it is not strictly a source of irrigation as it does not provide water as and when required and in requisite quantity nevertheless it does serve the purpose of artificial irrigation. This practice is called *haveli* or bunded field system of irrigation, under which water received during rains is held up till sowing time.

The following account of the methods of embanking is given by Russell in the Saugor District Gazetteer (1906):—

"The practice of embanking land for spring crops is of comparatively recent introduction and has found most favour in Khurai where the clayey soil is probably adapted to the construction of firm embankments, and the surface is level enough to get an even distribution of water. Embanked fields require very little labour in cultivation, all that is necessary being to pass the bakhar or paring plough over them once before sowing. They make the cultivator independent of the September and October rains as the ground cannot dry up. And the outturn in an ordinary year is substantially increased. In a dry year when many fields can not be sown, the cultivator with embanked fields will reap large profits. On the other hand, the crops in embanked fields are more liable to damage from rust, attacks of which are not infrequent in Saugor, and possibly also from frost, which appears to affect particularly crops standing in damp ground. These disadvantages, however, are held to be more than counterbalanced by the advantage accruing from embankments. During the recent bad seasons, much wheat land, especially in the Khurai tahsil, has been overrun by the destructive *kans* grass (*Saccharum spontaneum*), and the embanking of fields is a method of reclaiming this land, as the grass is killed by keeping the field under water for one season.[1]

"There are two methods of embanking fields. The first, which is most widely practised in the Jubbulpore Haveli, is to

1. Corbett in his Settlement Report (1911-16), however, says, "As a method of eradicating kans which was one of the objects of their (embankments) construction, the Talas are an admitted failure."

enclose the field on all sides by an embankment about 3 feet high. The embankments are intended to hold up all the rain water that falls on the fields and to retain a maximum depth of about 1½ feet. The water is drained off about a fortnight before sowing. This system is only successful when the surface is very level. The second system, which is generally followed in Saugor, is to construct embankments of 6 or 7 feet high on the lower sides of large fields having a slight slope. The slope should ordinarily not be more than 1 in 200, otherwise the expense is largely increased. The embankments are constructed on contours with flank and partition banks to divide the area above them into fields of a suitable size. Spill channels should be provided round the upper ends of the main and divisional spurs. The embankments hold from 3 to 4 feet of water immediately above them when the fields are full. This water is held up during the rains to saturate the land submerged above the embankments. In the month of October it is let out, and used to give the fields below the embankments a watering before sowing. The lower fields are usually surrounded by small banks of from 1½ to 3 feet high, and are cropped with early rice during the rains, thus giving double crops."[1]

Substantial works officially termed as *bandhans*, but locally called *talas* or tanks are constructed in Sagar and principally in Khurai tahsil. Embankments prevent erosion or the loss of valuable top soil and organic matter through rainwash. But if the land is kept flooded throughout monsoon, it becomes water-logged. Experiments in Jabalpur *haveli* have shown that better results are obtained when the embankments are cut and the soil is cultivated and thoroughly aerated during breaks in the monsoons. The submerging of land also benefits the soil by making it more fertile. The first floods bring a lot of silt with them which acts as a rich manure.

Wheat is the crop principally sown in these embanked fields. During the second Settlement in Sagar district, no extra rate was imposed on embanked fields with a view to encouraging the extension of the practice. The returns of the crop-experiments showed that on the same soil the out turn in embanked fields was increased by about 20 per cent. At Mr. De Brett's Settlement only 1,100 acres of wheat land were recorded as having large embankments and 7,500 acres as having small ones. The embanked fields were fairly distributed over Sagar, Rehli and Khurai tahsils. Mr. Corbett had reported that, partly by Government works and partly by private enterprise, the embanked area in Khurai had increased from 1,500 acres to 13,000 acres since the previous Settlement.

1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, pp. 113-114.

It has not been possible to harness the rivers of the district for purpose of impounding water. The reason is that river beds are far below the level of the country so is to make the cost of raising water prohibitive. With the spread of electricity to remote areas and popularity of lift irrigation, this may no longer hold good. A new trend in irrigation was started with the switching on of electricity in the Rehli tahsil on 26th January 1960, which was primarily laid for the purpose of giving power for lift irrigation. Another area surveyed for lift irrigation is in the Banda tahsil in the Sanodha-Midwasa region, where water from the Behas river is proposed to be lifted. This scheme has been estimated to cost Rs. 2.80 lakhs. Lift irrigation from wells is also bound to expand, particularly in tracts where water is located at some considerable depth.

Water Potential

According to the Geological Survey of India the main formations met within the area are the Deccan traps with inter-trappean beds overlying the Vindhyan formations. The Vindhyan sandstones occur as inliers mostly in the form of flat topped hill surrounded by the Deccan trap lava flows which generally occupy the plains below. The Sagar civil station stands on the Bundhair sandstone formation. The rock types of the Vindhyan outcrops are a succession of thick massive and silicified sandstones and false bedded flags variegated in colour.

The Deccan traps consist of black coloured basalt or delerite often amygdaloidal. The weathered Upper zone of the trap rock crumbles into loose powder and could be easily excavated. The soil mantle on the flat top hills is of meagre thickness whereas in the valley plain they vary from 8-20 feet.

The main source of water supply is from dug wells. The compact Vindhyan formations and trap rocks have little water bearing capacity. There is acute shortage of water during summer months. It is reported that open wells vary in depth between 8-20 feet. Only two wells were reported to be 56 and 83 feet, respectively. The yield from these larger wells ranges from 10—15 thousand gallons per day. Larger yields of 30 thousand gallons per day could be expected if mechanical bailing methods are employed. Tube well sinking has not been recommended.

The groundwater conditions west and south of Sagar (area falling in topo sheets 55 1/5, 1/6, 1/9-10 and 1/14) were also studied by the Geological Survey of India during the years 1957-58. The geological formations met within the area are the Deccan Traps of Upper Cretaceous age overlying Vindhyans. In the alluvial country east of Patharia-Garhakota road, wells yield large quantities of water, whereas, dug wells in the hard rock areas are reported to go dry in sum-

mer. Occasionally, fissured limestones act as good aquifers. Further detailed geo-hydrological studies are necessary for recommending tube-wells in the alluvial tracts above mentioned.

Soil Erosion

The problem of soil erosion in Sagar district is of considerable magnitude. The second Settlement Report of Saugor district (1897) states. "Unless steps are taken to counteract it, the action of this drainage has a most detrimental effect for it scours away the finer and more fertile particles of the soil and gradually makes uneven the surface of the fields across which it is carried. The damage when once started, spreads rapidly and field after field will be ruined unless prompt measures are taken to prevent the violent rush of water across them. These small nalas are rather a hindrance than a help to agriculture, nor do the people derive any advantages in the way of irrigation from the larger streams of the district."

There are several factors which are responsible for this serious erosion of soil. The principal one is the natural configuration of the land. The topography of the district reveals long ranges of sloping hills, cutting diagonally across the district. The slopes differ in grades from one per cent to 10 per cent having a major group of cultivated lands in between one to three per cent of the slopes. This undulating topography has ample scope for free surface drainage by the numerous streams and nullahs which intersect the hills. Fed by rainwaters rushing down the hills forming ravines and deep scour, they become swollen during the rains and while overflowing their banks, carry away the productive powers of the soil. Some idea of damage done to the cultivated land may be had from the fact that during the third Settlement, out of 11,80,434 acres of cultivated land, 84,788 acres or seven per cent were recorded as *tagar, i.e.,* land which slopes sharply or is damaged by scour.

The climate and the cropping pattern also contribute to aggravate the soil erosion problem of the district But the long rainy season from July to September with heaviest down-pours during August makes it different from the climate of Northern India. The average rainfall is 50 inches, most of which is received in the monsoon period. One or two showers of one to three inches are sometimes received during winter. Hail storms are also received during winter and sometimes in March and April.

In the black cotton soil conditions the usual practice of cultivation is to grow only the Rabi crop. After the harvest the fields are usually kept fallow, till the next Rabi season, with the result that

during the rains most of the soil is eroded The large quantities of rain water received in the monsoon can not be absorbed in the soil and the surplus rain water runs over these open cultivated fields causing erosion in its various forms. It has been estimated that nearly 52 tons per acre of top soil is washed away in a single storm of normal intensity. The repeated heavy showers during rainy season carry several hundreds of tons of valuable top soil every year, and it is estimated that nearly 50 to 75 per cent of top soil has been eroded at many places in the district Deep tractor ploughing by Central Tractor Organisation went further in helping the process of erosion in Sagar district.

There are the following types of erosion found in the district:—

(1) Sheet wash erosion
(2) Ditch or finger erosion
(3) Stream bank erosion
(4) Gully erosion.
(5) Road side erosion

Slight sheet erosion, where 25 per cent of the top soil has already been washed away, is noticed in the gentle slopes from where the vegetative cover was removed and permanent cover has not been provided. This type of erosion takes place in cultivated areas. Moderate sheet erosion, on hill sides not protected with cover, with 25—75 per cent of the top soil already washed away is seen all over the uncultivated lands Severe sheet erosion is found on the extreme slopes and tops of the bare hills where over 75 per cent top soil has been removed and the sub-soil and in places rock or murram have been exposed.

Road side erosion is generally noticed on all the road sides of Sagar district, *viz.*, on the eastern side of the Sagar-Damoh road, western side along Sagar-Barman road and near Gourjhamar road. Stream bank erosion is, however, conspicuous on the Sagar-Jhansi road.

The first step taken towards soil conservation by the Agriculture Department is to check erosion by contour bunding operations on a large scale The contour bunding scheme in the district was started in the year 1956. Nearly 7,129.91 acres of land has been contour bunded till now.

Contour bunding is very effective in controlling the flow of surplus water in arable fields. The bunds are built with a gentle fall,

with provision of stone waste-weirs to let out surplus water. The bunds are maintained by planting useful fodder grasses, runners and crops like tur, castor, Ipomoea cuttings, etc. Further, the practice of strip cropping is being demonstrated to the cultivators, but this has a limited scope in ths district due to small area under Kharif crops.

In order to provide for the preparation and execution of land improvement schemes including schemes for the conservation and improvement of soil resources, the prevention or mitigation of soil erosion, the protection of land against damage by floods or draught and the reclamation of waste land, the Madhya Pradesh Land Improvement Schemes Act, 1957, was passed which came into force on 15th November 1958. Under the provisions of this Act a District Land Improvement Committee has been constituted which is presided over by the Collector.

Soils

The geological formation of the district is Vindhyan sandstone of the Upper Rewa group, overlaid with Deccan trap A layer of the infra-trappean or lameta limestone, of varying thickness sometimes interposes. Sandstone outcrops are frequent usually lying in thick strata of hard and semi-vitrified flags. In the north of the Banda tahsil, the sandstone is Lower Vindhyan, and Bundelkhand gneiss appears in the Shahgarh tract below the ghats Soils can be roughly grouped under three heads :—

(1) disintegrated sandstone, or the *sehra* series, reddish in colour ;

(2) disintegrated trap or the *rayan* series almost coal-black in colour ;

(3) alluvial deposit, greyish brown in colour which is subdivided into (a) clay or *rathia* sometimes when of superior quality called *kabar*, (b) a lighter and more friable loam mixed with lime grits, called *mund*.

The inferior soil of each series is called *patarua*. *Bhatua* is a variety of rock (whether sandstone or trap) in its first stage of disintegration. These groups, though distinct in their origin are of course much intermingled. Pure *sehra* and *rayan* are only found in the immediate proximity of the parent rock. When the black trap rests directly on the red sandstone a curious purple mixture sometimes occurs. Elsewhere are such compounds as *sehra lai mund* or *rayan lai kabar* as they are locally called or again, the *mund* of the Khurai tahsil has a strong admixture of the *rathia* clay. Pure alluvium of some depth is found in the larger valleys, or in the *doabs* between streams. Along the sluggish streams of the trap

formation is rich low-lying land and even the *bharkas* or rivulets which cut up the *tagars* leave a fertile silt. Black soil is not confined to the valleys. On the flat tops of the trap hills are level stretches of good *rayan* soils known as *karis* in the Rehli tahsil and elsewhere as *pathars*. The chief defect of the Sagar black soil is its shallowness. Even in the valleys the depth is not consistent. Differing entirely from the rest of the district, the Shahgarh tract below the ghats is a level and monotonous expanse of sandy soil broken only by fantastic towers of gneiss.

At the 30 years' Settlement of 1867, fields were classified according to soil, the local names of the various soils being adopted. These were *mar*, *kabar*, *mund*, *rathia*, *raiyan*, *patarua* and *bhatua*. No distinctions based on crops or positions were recognised. In Mr. De Brett's Settlement (1897) a far more elaborate classification was adopted, and soils were distinguished, according to their composition, the crops they actually carried, and their position, names and differences known and appreciated by the people being adhered to throughout. Nine soils were distinguished and named respectively, *mar*, *kabar*, *mundawal*, *mund doyam*, *rathia*, *raiyan*, *patarua*, *bhatua* and *kachhar*.

The classification of the occupied area during the third Settlement (1911-1916) is shown below:—

Soil (1)	Area (2)	Percentage of Total Occupied Area (3)
First Class—		
Mar	6,497	1
Kabar I	14,329	1
Mund I	2,82,847	24
Kabar I'	43,332	4
	3,47,005	30
Second Class—		
Mund II	2,98,735	25
Rathia I	35,501	3
Rayan I	96,977	8
	4,31,213	36

(1)	(2)	(3)
Third class—		
Ralhia II	23,809	2
Rayan II	50,128	4
Patarua I	1,83,504	16
	2,57,441	22
Fourth class—		
Patarua II	68,337	6
Bhatua I	28,641	2
Bhatua II	36,500	3
	1,33,478	11
Bari (Garden)	11,297	1
Total .	11,80,434	100

The distinguishing characteristics of these soils were as follows:—

Mar is a clayey soil of first-rate fertility occurring in level country, with greyish-black colour and of great depth. It is very retentive of moisture, does not crack much, and takes a long time after the rains to become fit for ploughing. If much rain falls in the cold weather, wheat on *mar* soil suffers from rust. This soil is very uncommon and covers only one per cent of the cultivated area, being found principally in the Khurai tahsil in the Khurai, Itawa, Barodia-Neonagar and Eran groups where it is generally stiffened with an admixture of clay. It is also to be found in the Pamakheri and Sagar groups of Sagar tahsil. In the Banda and Rehli tahsils it is very rarely met with

Kabar is a first-rate black cotton soil and differs from *mar* and *mund* in being composed of smaller particles and is, therefore, more

sticky (*chikta*) when wet, and harder when dry. Hence it is difficult to be worked during short breaks in the monsoon and as soon as it dries it is almost too hard to sow. For Rabi crops on *kabar* soil September rain is essential but Kharif crop on that soil scarcely ever fails. It is greasy and is used for cleaning the hair. Its clods are very hard, and break with a smooth fracture. It sometimes contains small pebbles which are generally of a black colour. *Kabar* covers only five per cent of the cultivated area, and is found chiefly in the Rehli tahsil, being especially common in the Rehli, Gourjhamer and Baleh groups. In the Dhana group of the Sagar tahsil also there is considerable area of this soil.

Mund is black or brown soil of good quality but inferior to *mar* or *kabar*. It differs from *kabar* in being of looser texture, as it consists of larger particles, and generally contains some admixture of limestone grit (*chunkankri*). It dries after rain more rapidly than *mar*. *Mund* is divided into two classes of which the first (*awwal*) is black or nearly black soil containing little lime grit, while the second (*doyam*) is of lighter colour, contains more limestone, pebbles and sand, and therefore, cracks less. *Mund I* is the typical wheat soil, and when well cultivated will grow wheat continuously without manure, fallow or rotation. However scanty the rainfall, this fine soil seems to produce a fair crop but when low lying it is more liable to rust than that on the lighter soils.

Mund II is shallower and is generally broken and undulating. It will not grow wheat continuously but rotations of jowar, gram and other leguminous crops avoid fallows. On alluvial flats, or when mixed with a stronger soil *mund*, It is good Kharif land. But on the light undulating *tagars* the cultivator seems unable to grow anything but Rabi. *Mund* is the commonest soil and covers 49 per cent of the cultivated area, 24 per cent being of the first class and 25 of the second. *Mund* is chiefly found in Sagar tahsil (Sihora, Nariaoli, Jhilla and Dhana groups), Khurai tahsil (Etawa, Khurai Khimalasa and Kanaia groups) and Rehli tahsil (Garhakota and Barho groups). *Mund* area in the Banda tahsil is the smallest. A *mund* village is notoriously 'one crop', dependent on a single harvest. *Mund* with a clay admixture such as is found in the Khurai plain is a strong soil, suited either to Kharif or to Rabi.

Rathia is an inferior kind of *kabar* of a brown colour, containing pebbles and grit, and forming, when dry, very hard clods. It is a difficult soil to cultivate and if there is delay in ploughing it becomes too hard to be worked. It is said to wear out plough-cattle very fast. *Rathia* covers five per cent of the cultivated area.

and is generally classed as fit to grow wheat. Largest concentrations of the soil are found in Sihora and Narisoli groups of Sagar tahsil.

Raiyan is a black soil generally containing some black stones, which is distinguished from *mar*, *kabar* or *mund* by its shallowness. It dries rapidly and requires good rains at sowing time. On the other hand it is well drained and grows Kharif in years of excessive rainfall. It occurs in the neighbourhood of hills, and rock underlies the soil at a small depth. It forms very wide and deep cracks when it dries and carries both autumn and spring crops but wheat sown on it requires cold weather rains. It is chiefly found in the Dhana and Jaisinagar groups of Sagar tahsil and Naharmow group of Rehli tahsil. *Raiyan* covers 12 per cent of the cultivated area.

Patarua or thin soil is an inferior kind of *mund*, the best portions of which have been washed away by drainage. It is brown in colour and of loose friable texture. It is generally found on uneven ground, and covers 22 per cent of the cultivated area. Good *patarua* can grow wheat in favourable seasons, but it is mainly devoted to inferior crops. Another variety of *patarua* is light-coloured sandy soil, well suited for rice, which occurs near the Vindhyan hills. Rehli tahsil accounts for the largest area of *patarua*. It is chiefly concentrated in the Rehli group of this tahsil, Dhana group of Sagar tahsil and Binaika and Shahgarh groups of Banda tahsil.

Bhatua is poor land generally of reddish colour and covered with cobble stones. It covers five per cent of the cultivated area, and grows only the inferior autumn millets and oilseeds, as kodon, kutki and til. It is chiefly found in Rehli tahsil followed by Banda tahsil.

During the second Settlement land was also classed according to the crops grown on it. Fields which grew or had grown wheat were classed as *gohari*, rice fields as *dhanahi*, fruit and vegetable gardens and sugarcane as *bari* and other fields as *mutfarikat*. Land lying near the village site and manured by its drainage or in other ways was entered as *geunra*, to whatever class it might belong. In the whole district 690,000 acres or 64 per cent of the cultivated area were classed as wheat land, 21,000 acres or two per cent as garden land, and 342,000 acres or 32 per cent as minor crop land (*mutfarikat*). In practice land was only classed as capable of growing wheat when the records showed that this crop had actually been raised on it Practically all the *mar*, *kabar* and first class *mund* soil is classed

as wheat-growing as also much of the second class *mund*, and a certain area of *rathia* and *raiyan*.

Position classes.—For wheat fields or *gohari* land the following position classes were adopted: *sasira* if the field was a very good one lying low. and retaining moisture a long time; only one per cent of the wheat land was in this position, *tagar* or a high-lying field damaged by drainage and *bharkila* for a field cut up by water channels or ravines; those positions contained 13 per cent of the wheat growing area: *ujarha* for a field lying at a distance from the village and damaged by wild beasts; five per cent of the wheat land was in this class; *bandhia* for a field embanked with a large bank; only one per cent of the wheat growing area was embanked at Settlement; *abpashi* or irrigated ; only ½ per cent of the area was irrigated, and two per cent was classed as *geunra* or receiving the drainage of the village, *mamuli* for a field not falling into any of the above classes; this position was most commonly met with and contained 78 per cent of the wheat growing area

Rice land was classed as *tikra* if highlying and gave a very poor crop in a year of scanty rainfall; *saman* if level and yielded a fair crop in a year of scanty rainfall; *jhilan* if lowlying giving a good crop in a year of scanty rainfall and *abpashi*, when irrigated from a tank. About three per cent of the rice land was then irrigated and 33 per cent was within the *geunra* area.

The greater portion of the minor crop land is *patarua* or *bhatua*, these two soils covering nearly 70 per cent of the whole area, and the remainder being second class *mund*, *raiyan* and *rathia*. There were no position classes for this land Garden land was classed as *abpashi* if irrigated, and *barani* if unirrigated, and gardens were further classified according as they were for the production of (a) maize, vegetables or fruit, or (b) sugarcane.

Soil Factors.—The factors which indicate the comparative value of soils, are calculated according to the net productivity of each soil. The factors of value of these soils differ slightly in different tahsils, but during the second Settlement the following figures were considered to represent them fairly accurately. Taking wheat land first, *mar* in the ordinary position had a factor of 36. *kabar* 34. *mund I* 32, *mund II* 26, *rathia* 24, *raiyan* 20, and *patarua* 16. In Rehli excluding Garhakota, *kabar* was lowered to 32. and in Khurai *mund I* to 30 while in Sagar *mund II* was raised to 28. In Naharmow pargana of Rehli tahsil, *rathia* and *raiyan* were valued somewhat more highly. *kachhar* was valued at 32 in Khurai and 34 in Rehli.

During the third Settlement the soil factors were revised upwards. The factors ultimately accepted for each soil in the ordinary position compared with the factors of last Settlement were as follows: —

(1)	At Second Settlement (2)	At Third Settlement (3)
Mar	36	36
Kabar I	34	36
Mund I	32	32
Kabar II (*Had kabar*)	21*	28
Mund II	28 26	.. 24
Rathia I	24	24
Raiyan I	20	24
Rathia II	14*	18
Raiyan II	11*	18
Patarua I	16	14
Patarua II	8	10
Bhatua — — .. — — —	4	6
Bhatua II .. — .. .. — — —	—	4

NOTE.—(1) The factors marked * were the *mutfarikat* factors of last Settlement.

(2) In the Rehli tahsil when experience was incomplete *raiyan* II was factored 14, *patarua* 11 and all *bhatua* 4.

(3) *Mar* was factored 36 in the Khurai tahsil. The small areas elsewhere were a different quality 60 soil and were factored 40.

Crops

The district of Sagar is predominantly a Rabi area. Wheat crop is the agricultural staple. Other staple crops are gram, linseed and jowar. Mixed cropping is resorted to as a measure of insurance against the vagaries of nature. Rabi is the main cropping season, though the proportion of Rabi to Kharif has varied from time to time. In 1891-92, Rabi crops occupied 65 per cent and Kharif crops 35 per cent of the total cropped area. In 1920-21 the Rabi-Kharif ratio was 58 : 42 and in 1957-58 it was 77 : 23.

Occasionally, the Kharif crop exceeded the Rabi when wheat crop was badly affected by rust or frost or when bad season hampered Rabi sowings. When the season conditions came to normality the Rabi crops were gradually restored to their original position of prominence. Conversely whenever there are heavy and continuous rains through July and August which prevent the ploughs from getting to work, or Kharif crops get rotten particularly in lowlying and water-logged areas, they are ploughed and diverted to Rabi sowings. The climatic conditions thus largely determine the relative weightage given to Kharif and Rabi crops in a particular year.

The sowings of Kharif crops, extend over early June to mid-August. The harvesting of Kharif crops starts from the middle of August and continues upto middle of January. The tur (arhar) crop, of course remains in the field for a longer period and the harvesting of its late variety prolongs right up to the close of April.

The sowing of Rabi crops starts from October onwards and continues upto early December. The Rabi harvests extend over mid-December to April end.

The following table shows the sowing and harvesting seasons of some important crops grown in the district:—

Crop (1)	Sowing Season (2)	Harvesting Season (3)
Wheat	1st Oct. to 1st Nov.	15th March to 30th April
Gram	1st Oct. to 15th Oct.	15th Feb. to 1st March
Linseed	15th Oct. to 1st Nov.	15th March to 1st April
Jowar	25th June to 10th July	15th Nov. to 15th Dec.
Paddy	25th June to 10th July	1st Oct. to 31st Oct.
Potato	1st Nov. to 1st Dec.	15th April to 15th May

Wheat.—Wheat is the most important crop and the cultivators prefer to grow it first. There are several varieties of local wheat which are roughly divided by the cultivators into Gehun and Pissi. Former includes all the hard or macaroni wheats which are primarily grown for home consumption. The latter is soft common wheat meant for outside market.

During the wheat boom of the 'Eighties and the early 'Nineties wheat growing in the open tract was almost an agricultural obsession. Area under wheat sown, alone or as a mixture with gram, amounted to 414,915 acres at the 30 years' Settlement. It increased to 515,205 acres in 1891-92 which covered 51 per cent of the gross cropped area. In the next two years the percentages were 55 and 52. A failure of the wheat crop in the middle of the 'Nineties reduced the percentage of the wheat area to 22 in 1895-96 and 15 in 1896-97. This was probably the most unfortunate year for wheat in the agricultural history of Sagar. The record of 5.60 lakh acres of wheat land established in the year 1892-93 was exceeded only in 1956-57 when area was 6.23 lakh acres.

Production of wheat in 1957-58 amounted to 84.7 thousand tons and in 1960-61 was 164.3 thousand tons. Khurai tahsil accounts for the bulk of the wheat area, with Sagar and Rehli tahsils closely following.

For wheat growing heavy soils retaining moisture are preferred. On some clear day before the burst of monsoons. *bakhering* is done so that weeds may be cleared and a bed prepared which will retain the first fall. During the breaks in rainy season the land is carefully cross-ploughed with the *bakhar* or surface plough to clear it of weeds and make a good tilth. The last *bakhering* is done on the conclusion of rains Field is prepared for sowing which is done by *nari* plough and at some places by *kathari tifan* In Khurai tahsil and parts of other tahsils line sowing is also done by tractor seed drills and by bullock power by using *dufan* and *tijfan* Sowing time depends on the termination of the monsoon but usually begins in October and completed in November. The exact time to sow is often a hazardous choice and a big cultivator sometimes compromises by sowing part early and part late.

In some tracts of the district bunding of the fields is done. The water is drained out before sowing and sowing operations are done by *narihal* or *dufan*. No preparation is required to be done during the rains.

The crop is generally ready to be cut in the first week of March and when once begun harvesting is accomplished with astonishing rapidity usually with the assistance of outside labour.

Another peculiarity associated with the cropping of wheat is the growing of wheat gram mixture known as Birra. Pure wheat is the normal crop but as the climate is unpredictable, this is done so as not to keep all the eggs is one basket This is particularly done in

years of light rainfall or when seed is in short supply. Failure of the wheat crop has caused the cultivators to adopt it to a greater extent. Usually gram sown amounts to 15–40 per cent of the total seed depending upon conditions of rain fall and soil. The poorer the soil the greater is the percentage of gram. Gram is a stronger plant and when rainfall is below normal or land becomes dry, the proportion of gram is increased. When wheat is sown mixed with linseed, it is called Gajra.

Gram.—Next in importance to wheat is gram. It is grown partly on good black soil as an alternative to wheat and partly on inferior black soils, unfit for wheat, sometimes in rotation with wheat or jowar. It is a favourable first crop on newly broken black soil, especially if there is any *kans* left on it. Gram fertilizes the soil in which it is grown.

At the 30 years' Settlement, the acreage under gram was 49,763 acres. In 1891-92 gram area was 67,554 acres, *i.e.*, seven per cent of the gross cropped area. In subsequent years the area under gram increased, especially in the years when bad seasons prevented large wheat sowings.

In 1957-58 gram occupied 89,516 acres of the land and production amounted to 7.5 thousand tons. In 1960-61 area and out-turn were 78,779 acres and 12·9 thousand tons, respectively.

Khurai and Rehli tahsils are the leading producers of gram, while Sagar tahsil occupies the next place.

Linseed.—Linseed is an important commercial crop, and is grown on poorer wheat land or land unfit for wheat. It does not always follow the fortunes of wheat hence cultivators often sow linseed with wheat so as to insure against a failure of their staple crop of wheat. It is grown not infrequently mixed with gram as well as with wheat. Its cultivation is attended with considerable risks and is considered speculative. It is also exhausting to the soil. From the cultivator's point of view it has the advantage that it requires less quantity of seed to sow in comparison to wheat, and is generally successful when gram and wheat fail. Its area is determined by the state of the market and fluctuates violently.

In 1891-92 linseed covered an area of 36,314 acres which meant 3.6 per cent of the gross cropped area of the year. Its highest recorded area was 72,773 acres in 1912-13 which covered 7·7 per cent of the total cropped area. In 1957-58, linseed was grown on 18,600 acres and yielded 700 tons. In 1960-61 the acreage and out-turn were 18,255 acres and 1.6 thousand tons.

Sagar tahsil contributes about half of the acreage cropped under linseed. Next in extent is Rehli followed by Banda and Khurai.

Jowar.—Jowar is the most important amongst the Kharif crops and stands next to wheat as a food-crop. It is often grown on good land in rotation with wheat. It sometimes does particularly well in light soil villages where wheat does not prove equally successful. Failure of wheat harvest is followed by an immediate expansion of the jowar area, partly because wheat seed is likely to be in short supply and partly to replenish the larder as it ensures early supply of foodgrains. It has the added advantage that it provides fodder for the cattle.

At the 30 years' Settlement 51,563 acres were devoted to the cultivation of jowar. In 1891-92 jowar occupied 76.166 acres, or 7.6 per cent of the gross cropped area. There have been periods of boom in jowar production during the calamitous days of famines, *viz.*, from years 1896-97 to 1910-11 (with the exception of the year 1904-05) and under the impact of high prices, *viz*, in years 1914-15 to 1916-17 and 1942-43 to 1948-49 .

In 1957-58 the area under jowar crop was 80,462 acres and production 19,100 tons In the year 1960-61 the area and out-turn were 78,000 acres and 26.7 thousand tons, respectively.

Paddy.—Paddy is not particularly important crop in the district. It is confined to small plots round the village site to which drainage from houses can be easily diverted, the manured *gadas*, small embanked fields, wet land below tanks and along the edges of a waterspread. It is also occasionally grown in scattered *jhils* or hollows of trap formations. Only 10,000 acres were under paddy at 30 years' Settlement. During the years 1891-92 to 1917-18 the area varied between 30,000 and 15,000 acrés. Since 1918-19 it has consistently been above 20.000 acres. In 1957-58 the area and production were 29,078 acres and 3.1 thousand tons, respectively. In the year 1960-61 area rose to 34,464 acres and production to 10.9 thousand tons.

Sesamum (Til).—Til is usually of the white autumn variety and is grown chiefly in the Rehli tahsil. When late til is likely to be caught by frost and if the monsoon is delayed sowings are at once affected, *e.g.*, in 1912-13 the til area fell from 47 000 acres to 17.000 acres on account of delayed rains. In the northern tahsils the hardier ramtil is preferred and is a common crop on the inferior *raiyans*.

In 1957-58 til was grown on 16,646 acres which gave an out-turn of 0.5 thousand tons. In the year 1960-61 the area and production were reported as 11,079 acres and 0.3 thousand tons, respectively.

The major portion of the til crop comes from Rehli tahsil, the next sizeable production being in Banda.

Sugarcane.—At 30 years' Settlement, 5,500 acres were recorded under sugarcane crop Since then this crop has been on a steady retreat. In very many villages large abandoned stone cane mills could be seen bearing testimony to the fact that sugarcane was once extensively cultivated Large numbers of old abandoned wells which were chiefly used to irrigate this crop also bear witness to this. Now sugarcane claims only about 500 acres on the average and is almost concentrated in Rehli and Sagar tahsils.

Cotton.—During the 30 years' Settlement there were about 30,000 acres of cotton and Garhakota on the Sonar was an important market At that time, the trade of Rehli tahsil chiefly consisted of the export of cotton which was sent to Mirzapur and Bombay. But this trade in cotton fast declined, and by the third Settlement, cotton acreage had fallen to 15,000.

Now cotton is mainly confined to the sheltered Sonar and Kopra valleys of the Rehli tahsil. During the year 1957-58 and 1958-59, only 500 acres were reported under this crop.

Fruits and Vegetables.—Fruits and vegetables occupied 6,425 acres in 1960-61 out of which potato was responsible for 1,839 acres which produced 8.0 thousand tons. Sagar district is one of the principal producers of potato in the State, and Sagar tahsil is the chief potato-growing area. Mango is the chief fruit crop of the district.

Good pan is grown at Sagar and at Baleh and Sahajpur in the Rehli tahsil by the colonies of Barais who are reputed to have migrated here from Rewa and Mahoba about 250 years ago. Market gardening is concentrated round big cities and towns, principally Sagar city and Cantonment. Here land is heavily rented and intensively cultivated by the market gardeners. The industrious Kachhis grow excellent potatoes and vegetables, for which the climate is favourable. With better irrigation facilities it should be possible to devote larger areas to fruits and vegetables or to grow them more intensively than at present.

The State Department of Agriculture has taken various steps to encourage the cultivation of fruits and vegetables under its Grow More Fruits and Vegetable Campaign. Vegetable seeds and seedlings raised on Government farms and gardens of leading cultivators are distributed at cost price to kitchen gardeners. Seed potatoes of improved varieties imported from other States are distributed. Technical advice is given for the proper growth and maintenance of kitchen gardens.

Agricultural Implements

The agricultural implements used in the district are chiefly the traditional ones, and consist of—(1) plough, (2) *bakhar*, (3) drills, (*duffan*, *tiffan*), (4) hoes (*daura*) and (5) levelling planks (*patha*). The cultivators mostly use wooden ploughs for ploughing, and the village-carpenters and blacksmiths prepare the wooden and iron implements required by them.

Bakhar is used for preparation of seed beds, and is manufactured by local artisans with mild steel and wood. It is worked by tying the beam to the yoke and can be operated by one man and a pair of bullocks. It weighs about 65 lbs. The work rate is 1½ acres to 2 acres per day. The cost of a *bakhar* is about Rs. 16. Its annual maintenance cost is about Rs. 2 and has service life of about five years. This implement is used universally and the year round.

The *nari* plough is used by all the farmers of the district for ploughing fields during the monsoon and sowing Rabi crops. It penetrates the earth upto a depth of 2-3 inches. Like *bakhar* it is manufactured and repaired locally and worked in the same way. The share point is made of iron and rest is of wood and weighs about 57 lbs. It covers 1 to 1½ acres per day. It costs about Rs. 12, with about one rupee for annual maintenance. It is generally serviceable for about five years.

In areas of Banda and Rehli tahsils where paddy cultivation is of some importance the Malwa plough is coming into use because of its light working.

Of late the older types of implements are sought to be replaced by more modern and efficient ones in order that the agricultural production might be increased. The Agriculture Department has been evolving for some years improved implements which have, to some extent, been adopted by big cultivators. They consist of 1. Paddy thresher, 2. Touchi-Gurma, 3. Olpod thresher, 4. Akola hoe,

5. Power thresher, 6. Bund former, 7. Hand operated paddy sheller, 8. Rice puller, 9. Rice polisher, 10. Fodder cutter, 11. Seed drills, 12. Cane crushing mills, 13 Mould-Board plough, 14. *Rahat*, 15. Tractor with supplementary implements, 16. Groundnut sheller, 17. Garden tools, and 18. Winnowers.

Tractors have come into use increasingly since 1949. An inducement was given to private cultivators for the purchase of tractors by the grant of Taccavi on condition that the grantee agreed to plough 100 acres of his neighbour's land. In April 1961, 14 Government and 155 private tractors were working in the district. There are three mechanized farms in Khurai tahsil where all agricultural operations are carried out mechanically. They cover compact areas of 300, 550 and 941 acres

Details of the different kinds of agricultural implements and machinery in use in the district since 1956-57 are given in Appendix No A-12. At 30 years' Settlement 47,589 ploughs were recorded. At second Settlement (Attestation 1890-91 to 1894-95) 58,480 ploughs were enumerated The number increased to 62,337, *i.e.*, by 14 per cent, by the time of the third Settlement (Attestation 1910-11 to 1912-13). During the 45 years 1915-16 to 1960-61 the number of ploughs registered an increase of 47 per cent from 67,323 to 98,878. Wooden ploughs are still largely in use. In the year 1960-61 as against 98,760 wooden ploughs, only 118 iron ploughs were enumerated in the district.

In the year 1915-16, there were 15 acres of net area sown per plough. This ratio decreased to 14 in 1925-26 and to 13 in 1935-36 and 1945-46. In the year 1958-59 one plough was available for cultivating 11 acres of area sown. This steady increase in ploughs in relation to cultivated area points to improving agricultural conditions.

Seed Improvement

The results of experiments carried out on various Government farms show that increase in yield resulting from the use of improved seed would range between five to ten per cent. One of the first problems in supplying improved wheat seed was to evolve a variety which should be able to resist rust. Moreover, such a variety should have the general properties of high yield and greater nutritive value.

The first recorded attempts at the introduction of exotic strains of wheat and barley date back to the year 1866, when about two mds.

of seed was procured from England. Out of this about 1½ mds. were distributed in small quantities among different malguzars for sowing and 20 srs. were sown in the garden. However, the results were not conclusive.

In the quest for rust-resistant varieties of wheat seeds Sharbati wheat was evolved. Sharbati is a term applied collectively to a number of types of departmental wheat known as A 115, A 113 and A 112 which are selections obtained from a cross-bred wheat. Their success in the northern districts demonstrated their value to wheat growers. The intensity of attack by rust in 1927-28 and frost-*cum*-rust in 1928-29 further emphasized the need to introduce this quality of wheat. The Sharbati wheat which commanded a premium for export suffered in popularity with the fall in the export trade and a general impression existed that this variety does not give a satisfactory yield in dry seasons. However, Sharbati (A115) was recommended mainly on account of its rust-resistant properties.

A new wheat research scheme came into force from 2nd June 1941. Partially financed by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research this scheme was started at Experimental Farm, Pawarkheda. As a result of research with promising Indian and exotic strains, hybrids were evolved which have shown promising results and have replaced the earlier varieties, *viz.*, A 90, A 115, C 591. New strains of wheat seed at present recommended are H 11, 12, 19, 38 and 65, for unbunded areas. They are high yielding and rust-resistant. These strains have different maturity periods. H 11, 12, 65, 38 and A 115 are of medium maturity period. H 227 and AO 90 are late strains. Yield trials of rust-resistant wheat undertaken at Government Farm, Sagar, in the year 1956-57 proved the superiority of H 65, raised both as irrigated crop and under dry conditions, the yields obtained being 1,851 and 1,157 lbs. per acre.

Paddy.—The common approved varieties are No. 17 and Chhatri. Out of these the former is preferred because of its early maturity so that it is possible to reap a second crop of wheat.

Gram.—The improved strains evolved by the Department and distributed in the district are No. D-8 (Gulabi Chana) and EB 28. Gulabi Chana is of commercial value and is suitable for special purposes such as roasting.

Oilseeds.—Agriculture Department has recommended the following improved varieties of oilseeds—

Groundnut: Small Japan, AK 12-24 and AK 10.
Linseed: N 55 and No. 3.
Castor: E. B. 9.

The grains of the above improved strains of linseed are thick and brown and fetch good prices in the market. Multiplication of linseed No. 3 is in progress at Sagar Farm. With a view to promoting the cultivation of castor, two mds. of castor seed was distributed free of cost to the cultivators during the year 1961-62.

Tur.—No. 31 gave good response with a yield of 7.461 lbs. per acre on the Government Farm, Sagar, hence it is distributed to the cultivators of the district.

The improved varieties are carefully selected with reference to their suitability to the different areas. Their yield is tested under experimental and field conditions and only those which give the best results are recommended.

There is one government farm in the district which can supply pure and improved varieties of seeds to the cultivators, and improved strains of wheat, gram, pea, tur and jowar are supplied by this farm.

Since improved seeds produced on Government farm are insufficient to meet the growing demand, arrangements for seed multiplication are made through Government farms, Government plots, demonstration plots, and seed multiplication centres.

Private farmers also cooperate in the seed multiplication programme. The individual farmer is provided with seed which is grown under the general supervision of the Agriculture Department in respect to its purity. He is known as A class seed farmer, who supplies seed to B class farmer for multiplication. The third in this chain is the C class seed farmer. In the last stage, the purity of the seed becomes diluted to some extent.

The well-to-do farmers reserve seed from the current harvest for the ensuing crop. For cultivators who are compelled to dispose of the entire produce, the malguzars and money lenders have been the traditional source for the supply of seed. Quite often the business of money lending has been combined with the supply of seed. At present farmers obtain their requirements of seeds from Development Blocks, Government farm and Government seed godowns.

During the year 1926-27, an important scheme called Barhi scheme, was sanctioned which envisaged the supply of pure wheat seed at low rates of interest. This scheme was very popular with the agri-

cultural classes, but was resented by some malguzars, probably because the scheme clashed with their own private interest.

Another scheme which was popular in some villages may be described as the 'small cultivators' self help seed union', to which each member contributed at harvest. At the next sowing this was issued to members on *sawai,* and on the following harvest the original stock was recovered together with interest. This was augmented by a further contribution by each member and thus each year the stock accumulated till in certain of the older and better unions the seed stock was not only entirely sufficient for the needs of all the members but was available for issue on *sawai* to non-members. This type of union was possible in those villages only in which there was no dominant malguzar interested in seed supply.

Both these forms of seed unions were alike in that they were gradually collecting a stock of seed which could be entirely their own and on which they would be able in time to draw for further self help and cooperative agricultural improvement. However, a general collapse of the Barhi system was reported during 1935-36. Successive failures of crops made it difficult for them to keep the system going, and, therefore, steps had to be taken to wind them up.

The wheat seed was distributed through the agency of tahsil agricultural associations and other similar organisations which acted as distributing agents. The loans in the form of seed grains were advanced under the Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884, to the associations whose members accepted joint responsibility at 20 per cent *barhi.* One half went towards the payment of interest and the other half towards the payment of principal. Should a succession of satisfactory seasons be experienced, the loan could be paid off in 10 years and each association left with the original quantity of seed advanced as its own stock. This enabled the association to advance along other lines of agricultural improvement. As the transactions were done in kind, loans were not subject to loss owing to fluctuations in market prices.

Co-operative credit societies also traded in seed, a business which was originally started in the year 1900. Each society maintained a stock of seed for distribution amongst its members at sowing time. After harvest the amout of seed borrowed was returned to the store together with 25 per cent *barhi.* To start this enterprise a loan was originally obtained from the Central Bank, and the seed stocks were accordingly mortgaged to the Bank; but the debt was liquidated gradually by the sale of the extra grain received as *barhi* and paid as interest to the members of the societies.

In order to promote co-operation in the villages in regard to seed supply, *Panchayat kothis* were organised in some centres. Under this system seed was collected at harvest time for distribution at sowing time on the *barhi* system. In case seed was impure, it could be exchanged for pure seed.

During the year 1946 47, a 'pilot wheat seed distribution scheme' was introduced for the multiplication and distribution of rust-tolerant wheat strains, *viz*, A 115, AO 90, NP 52 and NP 101. Rust resistant varieties were also affected to some extent by the worst rust attack of the year but fared much better than the local Pissis.

Similarly, a 'paddy seed distribution scheme' was initiated, financed wholly by the State Government, which covered Banda tahsil of the Sagar district. Seed centres were organised and paddy numbers 7,13 and EB 17, Sultugurmatia and Chhatri varieties were propagated. These strains proved to be definitely superior to the local ones.

During the year 1947-48, 'wheat seed reserve scheme' was started in order to build up a reserve of wheat seed so that ample wheat seed could be made available to cultivators at sowing time The Agriculture Department procured rust-tolerant varieties from the cultivators partly on cash and partly on exchange basis and distributed to cultivators on the condition that they return at harvest time 2½ times the seed supplied to them.

Rotation of Crops.—A judicious system of rotation of crops is conducive to higher yields without any considerable loss of the fertility of soil and has now come to stay as an important part of better farming practised by the farmers who, in their ignorance or greed, will raise the same crop from the same soil year after year thus injuring the soil by depleting it of its vital reserves of nutrients. There is no particular system of rotation prevalent in the district. The following system of rotation has been advocated:—

1. One year rotation:
   1. Moong followed by wheat.
   2. Vegetables followed by wheat.
   3. Maize followed by wheat
   4. Paddy followed by lakh, gram or peas.
2. Two year rotation:
   1. Gram followed by wheat.
   2. Tur followed by wheat.
   3. Jowar followed by groundnut gram.

3. Three year rotation:

1. Paddy-berseem-vegetables.
2. Wheat-moong-maize.
3. Groundnut-wheat-fodder jowar or berseem.
4. Paddy-vegetables-maize.

The results of rotational and residual effect experiments in *haveli*-tract (Kheri section of Adhartal Farm) have shown that three course rotation of Birra, wheat and gram gave the highest yield followed by the two course rotation of Birra, wheat on Powerkheda Farm. The rotation of wheat-tur appeared to be the most remunerative followed by wheat-gram rotation.

Another traditional and common method of increasing fertility is to give the soil due rest so as to enable it to recoup its fertility through natural recuperative processes.

The results of experiments on various Government farms in the State show that in normal seasons manuring, on an average, increases the yield of rice by 22 per cent, wheat by 14 per cent and jowar by 25 per cent. The common manures are farm-yard-manure, compost, night-soil and green manure These come under organic manures. These are the traditional kinds of manures used for increasing fertility of soil. Land is not benefited by deposits of silt as the rivers flow in deep beds. but canal and tank silt is used for fertilising the soil. Of late artificial fertilizers are coming into increasing use. Organic manures are mostly applied for supply of humus to the soil. Fertilizers contain ingradicnts such as nitrogen, phosphorus, and potash in concentrated forms.

In the opening years of the Century, manure was not in use to any great extent. Fields round village sites, within easy reach of cow sheds and cattle standing ground, received the largest benefits of manure and fine field crops were raised in the *abadi* zone. Cattle are driven into jowar fields after harvesting to feed and to manure the land with their droppings. Wheat stubbles are also sometimes similarly grazed. At present, most of the cultivators are using farm wastes and cow dung for manuring their fields.

Besides urban compost, a scheme for rural compost was introduced in the year 1949-50 in order to utilise vast potentialities of developing locally available manurial resources in rural areas by composting village waste, dung and cattle urine. This scheme is supported by the cultivators, Janpad Sabhas and Gram Panchayats There are seven Municipalities and Gram Panchayats, in Sagar district which are preparing compost. They are Sagar Munici-

pality, Sagar Cantonment, Khurai, Bina-Etawa, Bamora, Garhakota and Deori. Municipal Board, Sagar follows trenching method of compost manufacture while both Banglore and Indore methods of composting are used by the Cantonment Board. Whatever is produced is auctioned yearly and usually applied to vegetable gardens or sugarcane fields, adjacent to the villages where the compost scheme has gained much popularity.

Work under town compost scheme is looked after by the Agricultural Assistants of the tahsils. The Depot Jamadar and Sanitary Inspector supervise this work. In the villages the cultivators are advised from time to time by the Agricultural Demonstration Kamdar with regard to the preparation of the compost pits. The rural compost scheme has been a great success. Green manuring is also being popularized by the subsidized distribution of green manuring seeds since 1957.

Under Grow More Food Scheme groundnut oilcake is being distributed by the Agriculture Department on a large-scale for manuring paddy, wheat and jowar as nitrogen in a very high percentage is present in this cake

During the 'Thirties of this Century occular demonstrations were carried out on the vegetable and sugarcane plots to demonstrate the value of using artificial fertilizers which were supplied free of cost by the Imperial Chemical Industries. Small plot demonstrations were organised on the lands of cultivators to show the effects of modern fertilizers, which began to be used in the district in 1951

The soils of Sagar district are generally deficient in nitrogen and lacking in phosphorus content. They are not generally deficient in potash. Therefore, three kinds of fertilizers, nitrogenous, phosphatic and potassic are being used in the district. Ammonium sulphate is one of the popular and useful fertilizers used in Sagar district and is suitable for all crops. It contains about 20 per cent nitrogen, which is one of the basic requirements of all plant life. Super-phosphate, which contains phosphorus, a basic need of the plant life in abundance, is being distributed on 25 per cent subsidy basis to the cultivators who prize it as a premier fertilizer.

The scheme of distribution of fertilizers came to be entrusted to the M. P. Cooperative Marketing Society, Ltd, sometime in 1954 and it is the sole supplier of this commodity to the sub-distributor

at district level. In Sagar district, the Sagar Marketing Society is responsible for meeting this demand.

Pests and Diseases

The agricultural crops in Sagar district are afflicted by a number of pests and diseases. But till about the second decade of this Century one great menace to the standing crops used to be wild animals which ravaged the fields from the neighbouring jungles. *Nilgai* and *sambar* abounded in the forest-clad hill sides which flanked the fields and they could be seen striding across the open fields even in broad day light. Antelopes once roamed about in the fields of Khurai tahsil. The greatest damage, however, was done by the pigs. They did more harm in an hour than the deer or antelope in a month, and could not be driven away by mere noise. Fencing and field-watching had to be arranged regularly to prevent ruination by such animals, and they proved to be major items in raising the cost of cultivation. The crops round the village sites suffer less than the outlying fields and cost less to protect.

To save the agricultural crops from the common insect pests the villagers in the district have been following certain common practices. Some of these are given below:—

(a) **Charging Irrigation Water.**—The irrigation water is charged with crude oil emulsion which helps in warding off some of the underground pests. With ordinary *mote* lift irrigation six to eight lbs. of crude oil emulsion is required to charge one acre area. Insects like cutworms, termites, cockchafers, wire worms, etc., are easily repelled and sometimes killed by this method.

(b) **Light Trap.**—Systematic setting of light traps is an economical and practical method for the destruction of insects which are attracted to the light.

(c) **Attractants.**—Attractants are set up to induce and trap the flies. The common attractants used are *gur-rab* solution, kerosenised water and citronella oil.

(d) **Field Bags.**—This is an ordinary cloth bag about five ft. long, three ft. wide and four ft. deep tapering at the lower end, where there is a small opening for releasing the collected insects. While trapping the insects this hole is tied with string. Two bamboo pieces are attached to the open ends of the bag, and two men holding the bamboo pieces run briskly across the field generally in

a direction opposite to that of the wind, keeping the bag at about the height of the crop, and the insects which are thus disturbed fall into bag. After the operation is finished, the wide end is closed and the hole at the tapering end is opened, and the insects are dropped into kerosenised-water where they are killed.

(e) Gur-rab Bait.—Containers having this bait are tied or suspended on the trees at suitable places in the fields. Fruit flies, fruit-moths and gall-flies are some of the common insects which are attracted and killed by this bait.

(f) Sticky Bands.—They are usefully applied on trees, etc., for preventing the crawling of ants, caterpillars, etc. If applied in thin layers on a tin or wooden shallow tray and waved in between the rows of the crops, insects like nymphs and hoppers of sugarcane. fly jassids, red cotton bugs can also be trapped.

With the advance of agricultural science it is now possible to protect the crops against numerous pests and diseases at a low cost. To make available the benefits of research made in the Entomology and Mycology section of the State Department of Agriculture, a Plant Protection Scheme was started from June 1949. The Zonal office for the Wheat Zone which includes Sagar district, is located at Jabalpur. The work is under the control of the District Agricultural Officer at the district level who is assisted by Agricultural Assistants at the tahsil level with Demonstration Jamadars for field work. The tahsils are further grouped into blocks on the basis of population. In N. E. S. or C. D. Blocks Agricultural Assistants have been posted and the agricultural work is being carried on by Gram Sewaks.

Amongst the diseases that affect the crops, the most important is rust. It has sometimes ravaged entire fields, resulting in widespread failure of crops. The year 1893-94 was the great rust year, which caused the worst recorded failure of wheat crop and wiped out at the eleventh hour what appeared to be a bumper wheat crop. Rust is caused by damp and cloudy cold weather. In recent years rust epidemic occurred in the year 1946-47 on a scale not known in living memory and the wheat area in the next year was one of the leanest on record. Other diseases of the wheat are foot-rot and loose-smut, In order to eliminate rust, seeds of resistant varieties are used, while to root out smut, solar heat treatment is given to the seeds before sowing. For protection against the foot rot the seed is treated with organo-mercurial fungicide.

Linseed is another victim of rust, Besides, linseed also suffers from virus. Both these diseases can be cured by the use of resistant varieties of seed. Constant rogueing is also recommended.

Gram is attacked by wilt and use of wilt-resistant varieties is recommended for warding off this disease.

Jowar has a tendency to be affected by grain smut. The usual method to eliminate it is by treating the seed with sulphur.

Agricultural Pests

The principal pests which are to be encountered are the following :

Wheat.—The stem borer (*Sesamia inferens* Wlk.) bores into the stem of the plant and feeds on the tissue inside As a result the stem becomes hollow and the plant dries up. It appears during the period November to February. For counteracting this pest, the dead hearts should be pulled out and destroyed. The crop per acre should be dusted with 15 to 20 lbs. of B.H.C. dust five per cent or sprayed with three ozs. of Aldrin dissolved in water or sprayed with 50 per cent D D T. wettable powder one lb in 16 gallons of water. White ants or termites (*Microtermes* Sp.) also damage wheat plant both as nymph and adult. They feed on the roots and the stems of the plants. Their time of appearance is October to February. The remedies suggested are (1) deep ploughing of infested fields, (2) application of crude oil emulsion (six to seven lbs. per acre) in irrigation water, (3) fumigation of mounds with calcium cyanide, and (4) dusting of infested fields with five lbs of 10 per cent or 10 lbs. of five per cent B.H.C. dust or 10 to 15 lbs. of five per cent Aldrin dust per acre. Treatment should be combined with preparatory tillage of the sowing operations. The menace of wheat stem fly (*Atherigona indica*, M.) becomes occasionally serious during October and November. The maggot bores into shoots causing the death of the seedling. It can be controlled by removing dead plants and dusting with five per cent B.H.C.

Gram.—Gram caterpillar (*Heliothis armigera* Fb.) is the most important pest of gram and a serious one It appears during November-February. This green coloured caterpillar in early stages feeds on the foliage and then bores pods and eats up the tender gram seed. Great damage is caused during cloudy weather in December and January. This pest can be effectively controlled in

the earlier stages by dusting with B.H.C. five per cent powder or five per cent D.D.T. using 15 to 20 lbs. per acre.

Jowar.—The jowar stem borer (*Chilozonellus* Swin.) is major pest of this crop. This caterpillar makes its appearance during the months from July to December. It bores the shoots, travels to the stems and kills the central shoot resulting in dead hearts. As preventive measures, all plants showing dead hearts should be uprooted and burnt. After the crop has been harvested, the stubbles should be collected and burnt. When the disease is noticed in the early stages of the crop, it should be dusted with five per cent B.H.C. at the rate of 15 lbs. per acre. Spraying with 0.16 per cent B.H.C or D.D.T is also recommended.

Tur.—Tur is attacked by our plume moth (*Exelastis Atomosa* W.) This caterpillar appears during the months of November to March. It bores the pods and feeds inside on seeds. Another pest of this crop is tur bug (*Clavigrulla* Spp.) which damages the crop by sucking the juice both as nymph and adult. For controlling these pests dusting the crop with five per cent B.H.C. or five per cent D.D.T. before flowering and spraying 0.16 per cent B.H.C. or D.D.T. is recommended.

Linseed.—Linseed gall fly (*Dasyneura Lini* Barnes.) is a serious pest of linseed. It occurs during the months of November to March. The maggot feeds on the essential organs of the bud resulting in total crumpling of the bud. For protecting the crop from this fly light trap should be set up and five per cent *gur-rab* solution should be used as attractant

Linseed caterpillar (*Laphygma exigua* Hub.) becomes occasionally a serious pest. It is active during November to February. This caterpillar webs the tender leaves of the growing top shoots and feeds on them. It can be controlled by dusting the crop with five per cent B.H.C. or five per cent D.D.T. at 15 to 20 lbs. per acre. Bihar hairy caterpillar (*Diacrisia obliqua* Wlk.) is active throughout the year. This caterpillar feeds on the leaves. The larva in its earlier stage is killed by dusting the crop with five per cent B.H.C. or five per cent D. D. T. For exterminating full grown larva seven to 10 per cent B H C or D D T. dust should be used.

Urd and Moong.—Urd and moong are damaged by flea-beetle. It is a serious pest and damages the foliage badly by perforating them. It occurs during the months of August to September. As a control measure dusting with five per cent B.H.C. at the rate of

15.20 lbs. per acre is recommended. Bihar hairy caterpillar (*Diacrisia obliqua* Wlk.) is a minor pest which damages the leaves and turns them papery. It appears during the months of September and October. In the earlier stages the crop should be dusted with five per cent B.H.C. If the caterpillars become fully grown up they should be collected and destroyed.

Pan.—Pan fly (*Disphinctus politus* Wlk.) causes serious damage to pan both in nymph and adult stages. It affects the crop during the months of March to June by sucking the juice of the vine. The pan crop can be protected by spraying with 0.16 per cent D.D.T. or B.H.C. or with fish oil rosin soap and Nicotine sulphate. The bugs should also be collected by hand nets or sticky winnows.

District Agricultural Office

The administrative supervision of the agricultural activities in Sagar district remained under the control of the Extra-Assistant Director of Agriculture, Jabalpur, till 1948, when a separate charge under a District Agricultural Officer was created at Sagar. He is assisted by one Agricultural Assistant and some Kamdars for field work at the tahsil level. The office of the District Agricultural Officer functions as a cell in the Collector's office to deal with all matters pertaining to agriculture.

Community Development Programme

Community Development Programme was started on the 2nd October 1953, in the district as a powerful instrument for all-sided regeneration and progress of the rural life. The first Development Block was inaugurated in Rahatgarh, while the Development Blocks at Khurai, Rehli, and Banda were opened on 1st April 1954. Subsequently, Development Blocks were established at Deori (1st April 1956), Shahgarh (2nd October 1957), Jaisingnagar (1st April 1958), Malthone (1st April 1960) and Kesli (1st April 1961). So far as agricultural improvement is concerned the following items of work have been adopted for implementation in the Block areas :

(1) Distribution of improved seed.

(2) Distribution of fertilizers.

(3) Distribution of sunn seed.

(4) **Construction of field embankments.**

(5) Plantation of quick growing fuel and timber trees.

(6) Expansion of minor irrigation facilities.

(7) Full and effective utilization of existing sources of irrigation.

(8) Manufacture of compost.

(9) Expansion of area under fruits and vegetables and in general.

(10) Opening of model farms in the fields of agriculturists for demonstration and introduction of improved agricultural practices.

(11) Organisation of crop competitions.

Research and Investigation

To popularise the use of scientific methods of agriculture, two fold methods were adopted namely, (i) Research and investigation, and (ii) Demonstration and propaganda. In the year 1916-17, a policy was formulated by the Provincial Government of the day that for purposes of demonstration of improved methods of agriculture and propagation of pure seed, each district should have its own farm. This was also in fulfilment of the desire of the progressive farmers to have their own district farms. During the next year the Chief Commissioner of the Province laid down that the establishment of a seed and demonstration farm in every district should form an essential preparatory measure for the future expansion of the departmental activities. Consequently work in the direction of starting a farm in Sagar was set in motion.

It was decided to locate the farm on the Bhopal-Rahatgarh road at a distance of five miles from Sagar. An area measuring 161.17 acres was acquired in 1917-18 of which 30 acres were cultivated in the same year with the assistance of hired labour. Construction of buildings commenced in 1918-19 In the beginning the area occupied by the Government Dairy Farm, Ratona, including the grazing and irrigated area under the command of the Ratona tank, also formed part of this Farm. The Ratona Dairy Farm was separated in the year 1945-46 and handed over to the Veterinary Department. The present Seed and Demonstration Farm covers an area of 161 13 acres out of which 149 71 acres are under cultivation

The soil of the Farm is light black clay-loam. The rainfall ranges between 45 to 48 inches and the land has slope of 12 feet

for every 100 feet. This slope has damaged the soil by erosion which in consequence has diminished production since 1945-46. In the year 1955-56, irrigation facilities were provided to the Farm by the construction of a new well, equipped with a pumping set. Two hundred cart loads of farm-yard manure are made available by the Ratona Dairy Farm every year. Irrigation facilities were further extended during the next year, *viz*., 1956-57 by the construction of a dam on the nullah flowing along the eastern borders of the Farm at a cost of Rs. 6,000. Two additional engines were installed for irrigation purposes. These facilities on full utilization will be sufficient to irrigate 60 acres of land.

The Farm is functioning under the supervision of an Agricultural Assistant designated as Farm Superintendent who is assisted by a clerk, two Kamdars and one Horticulture Kamdar for horticulture work. The programme of research includes agronomic research on wheat, gram, jowar and paddy.

The Seed and Demonstration Farm is fairly representative of the soil and climatic conditions available in major portion of the district. As such, in keeping with the economy of the district, Rabi crops are mainly raised on the Farm. Various improvements by way of improved varieties of different seeds, various types of manures and fertilizers, improved implements and agricultural and horticultural practices, *viz*., mixed farming, intensive cultivation and fruit and vegetable growing that are recommended to the cultivators, are first tested on the Farm both in well laid out field experiments and on field-scale trials. Successful experiments are recommended to the farmers. Similarly, results found suitable at the experimental and research station of the tract are first passed on to the Farm for verification before being finally recommended to the cultivators for adoption. The experimental programme of the Farm is revised in the light of the results obtained in previous years and according to future needs. It also serves as the chief multiplication centre for all improved varieties of seeds found suitable for distribution in the district These are grown under careful supervision and the seed is distributed to selected growers for further propagation.

One Government Agriculture Farm of the multiplication type was started in the year 1960 at Bijora with the object of demonstration of improved agricultural practices and multiplication of high yielding, rust-resistant and disease tolerant varieties of wheat and other seeds. The Bijora farm is situated at a distance of three miles from Deori in Rehli tahsil.

The Farm covers 93.19 acres of land out of which 43.19 acres are under the plough, mostly raising the Rabi crops. The rest of the land is covered with trees, shrubs, grass and roads. Land is slopy and suffers from gully erosion at some places. The fields are of *rathiya* and medium *mund* black soils. Very little irrigation facilities are available at the Farm. The Farm is supervised by an Agricultural Assistant designated as Farm Manager.

Demonstration and Propaganda

The purpose of demonstration work is to make it easy for the cultivators to introduce in their farming practices the improvements recommended by the Agriculture Department. The main lines of demonstration work were the extension of the area under high yielding, good quality staple crops; the improvement in the methods of cultivation; the introduction of improved implements, and the organisation of bodies such as seed-unions and agricultural associations. The production and supply of wheat seed was naturally the most important item of work in this main wheat growing tract of the State.

The Department of Agriculture has attempted since the beginning of this Century to awaken intelligent interest in agriculture generally by published literature, speeches and by actual demonstration. Agriculture knowledge disseminated through agricultural readers, popular bulletins and leaflets helps to popularise the subject among the village boys who are the farmers of the future. For the illiterate classes, the method of demonstration has the greatest appeal.

Paucity of extension staff has been a great handicap in the past. The Annual Report of the Department of Agriculture for 1927-28 says, "One of the most reasonable criticisms which may be made against the work of the Agricultural Department is that it is not sufficiently intensive This is not altogether a matter of surprise as the department has not yet reached the position of having one Agricultural Assistant for each tahsil and consequently there must still be a large number of cultivators who have not yet realised that there is a Government organisation to assist them in their operations."

At present there is one Agricultural Assistant in charge of each tahsil with a staff of 2-3 Agricultural Overseers and 6-8 Demonstration Kamdars to assist him in general demonstration and propaganda. He works under the administrative control of the Chief Executive

Officer of the Janpad and under the technical guidance of the District Agricultural Officer. He is also guided and assisted by the Tahsil Grow More Food Committee in the proper execution of the Grow More Food Schemes.

With a view to making the Agricultural Overseers and Agricultural Kamdars multipurpose Government servants who could be posted in intensive blocks for extension works, they were imparted training in Veterinary Science and Animal Husbandry prescribed for Stockman-*cum*-Health Assistants, and further training in human dispensaries. Similarly, a class for training the Stockmen of the Veterinary Department to work as Agricultural Demonstration Kamdars was run by the Agriculture Department.

The Government Seed and Demonstration Farm cannot be visited by more than a fraction of the cultivators of the district. So it is not possible for it to exert the desired influence on the ordinary cultivator. Hence arose the need and importance of small demonstration plots which could supplement and extend the activities of the Seed and Demonstration Farm. These plots are maintained by the Government for a period of 5 years.

Usually the leading cultivators came forward to offer plots on their own farms for demonstration purposes. These private demonstration plots helped to bring the demonstration staff into close contact with cultivators and afforded the opportunity to bring home to them the improved methods of agriculture at their own cost.

One feature of the Vidya Mandir Scheme inaugurated in April 1938 was to endow each Vidya Mandir with an agricultural plot donated by local philanthropists. These plots were to serve as demonstration plots and also serve as the principal source of income for the Vidya Mandir, by which it would become self-supporting. Though in theory the scheme was attractive it did not work satisfactorily in practice, partly due to the inexperience and lack of interest on the part of the local Vidya Mandir Committees, and the Gurus attached to the Vidya Mandir. At present the Vidya Mandir plots that are in existence in the district are at Ghorat, Patharia Jagan, Singravan. Vijayapura, Chandok and Singpur.

Marketing Societies

With the object of popularising and organising the work of the Department of Agriculture in the district among leading land owners tahsil agricultural associations were started, the aim being to organise one such association in each, tahsil. Some of them raised share capital and started shops for the sale of improved seeds and implements on the lines on which good work had already been done else-

where. At one time they also took the agency of the Indian Chemical Industries for the distribution of ammonium sulphate and other fertilizers, insecticides and fungicides. The supply of improved wheat seed was naturally the most important item of work.

These associations have now been converted into Marketing Societies, last one to be converted was Banda Agricultural Association in the beginning of January 1962.

Till then five agricultural marketing societies were functioning, one each at Khurai, Sagar, Deori, Rehli and Banda.

The establishment of co-operative marketing societies is in accordance with the development scheme of co-operative marketing of agricultural produce taken up during the Second Five-Year Plan. These societies aim at securing the best price to the cultivator for his produce by eliminating the middleman. They play a useful role by linking credit with marketing. The State Government has assisted these societies through purchase of shares and grant of godown loans, godown subsidy and staff subsidy

Crop Competitions

With the aim of stimulating the farmers to resort to intensive cultivation, adopt modern, improved and scientific agricultural practices and to step up production of crops, crop competitions are organised under All India and State Schemes and prizes are awarded. In the year 1954-55, Shri Rishabh Kumar of Khurai tahsil won a prize of Rs. 5,000 and was awarded the title of Krishi Pandit in the All-India Crop Competition for wheat crop. His achievement was the record yield of 72 maunds, two seers and nine chhataks of wheat per acre

Co-operative Farming

Another measure of reform directed towards more efficient methods of cultivation and better production was the extension of the cooperative principle to farming There are three types of co-operative farming societies in Sagar district and the comparative figures of each in 1959-60 and 1960-61 are given below:—

	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)
(A) Better Farming Society	7	11
B) Joint Farming Society	1	1
C) Collective Farming Society	3	3
	11	15

All of these societies were organised towards the latter part of the Second Five Year Plan (*i.e.*, 1958-61).

The better farming societies had a membership of 215 in 1960, of whom 189 were land holders with 26 as agricultural labourers. The number of full-time working members was 172 and the part time workers were 43. The total area under command was 3,786.4 acres out of which 90 acres were under irrigation. The paid-up share capital consisted of Rs. 18,000 received as Government contribution, to be paid back in 10 annual instalments, and Rs. 12,098 paid by the members.

The only joint farming society in the district has a membership of 23 consisting mostly of agricultural labourers who are employed whole-time. The area commanded by this society covers 309.85 acres which is un-irrigated out of which 220 acres are under cultivation. The collective farming societies in the district number three, with a membership of 65 agricultural labourers of whom 33 are employed full-time. There is an area of 520.66 acres under these societies, but they have not been working efficiently. During 1960-61 these societies sustained a loss.

Stability of Agriculture

No one without being personally acquainted with the seasonal conditions in Sagar district can realise the extent of dependence of agriculture on the prospects of monsoon and the anxieties which are felt annually regarding monsoon prospects. The showers which are received from October to December though less are of great value on the black soils suitable for Rabi crops, while cultivation on lighter soils is exceedinglv precarious if winter showers during November-March are not received besides the usual rainfall. Agriculture is dependent on rainfall which is extraordinarily variable, not only from year to year, but in the same year from tract to tract. Storms roll round and round the hills, giving good rain in one valley and missing the next with tantalising partiality. In the more elevated tracts, the cold of the winter months prohibits altogether crops which are susceptible to frost. And even the hardier varieties suffer sometime from the bitter winds. Again, hailstorms are so frequent, though local, coming with provoking suddenness in the autumn and the spring and destroying the ripening crops in their path.

In a year of seasonable rainfall the crops turn out to be excellent; when they are bad it is due to external and uncontrollable causes. Under such circumstances one can understand a fatalistic

attitude on the part of the cultivator which creates in him an indifference, and apathy towards intensive cultivation. The year ot year figures of acreage and production of different crops, except over small periods, show wide fluctuations. It may be difficult to perceive any definite trend in the agricultural statistics of the last 75 years for which records are available. Like the rainfall, the area and out-turn of the crops also appear to be erratic and fitful.

Owing to the limitations governing the factor of irrigation, seasonal conditions constitute a very important factor, and their effect on the out turn of harvest often nullifies all the effort of improved methods. The psychological effect of this factor of seasonal uncertainty discourages the cultivator from adopting costlier and productive methods of cultivation and the extra labour which the adoption of these entails, for fear of losing both his money and the fruits of his labour.

Another acute problem is that of shortage of agricultural labour. As a human problem it can be said to be not insurmountable, but in fact it has hampered the progress of agricultural operations and caused the lands to lie fallow. At harvest time the local supply has to be supplemented by the influx of *chaitaras* from the surrounding jungle tracts and other adjoining areas. In recent years the bidi industry has emerged as a formidable competitor of agriculture as regards supply of man power. The local labour is attracted towards bidi making, as it is comparatively easy going.

This problem assumed such menacing proportions that the Government decided to enact the Central Provinces and Berar Regulation of Manufacturing of Bidis (Agricultural Purposes) Act, 1948. Under this Act, Deputy Commissioners (Collectors) were authorised to declare certain periods as agricultural season during which no person residing in certain villages could undertake manufacture of bidis. However, this Act, which was passed prior to the enactment of our Constitution, has since been declared *ultra vires* of the Constitution.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE

Taccavi, as a system of rural financing under which Government advances loans at a fair rate of interest to owners or occupiers of arable land for relief of distress, purchase of seeds and cattle, improvement of land and for any other purposes connected with agricultural objects, has been in existence in some shape or other from pre-British days, as the following extract from the Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture, 1928, shows:

"In normal times, the village money lender seems to have met the normal needs, but in times of severe drought to wide-spread calamity, his resources proved unequal to the strain upon them and, long before the British acquired control, the rulers of the day were accustomed to grant loans to the cultivators of the soil."

The early British administrators continued this system and in 1793 various Regulations were issued providing for Taccavi advances to proprietors, farmers, subordinate tenants and raiyats for constructing embankments, tanks, water-courses, etc. These were followed by a series of Acts, which, with some modifications are now represented by the Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883, and the Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884.

As in the rest of the State, in this district loans are granted under the Land Improvement Loans Act and the Agriculturists' Loans Act under the different schemes

Loans under the Agriculturists' Loans Act are intended primarily to relieve distress and to assist the poorer cultivators in financing their agricultural operations. Loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act, are intended to encourage the improvement of agricultural land and need not in principle be restricted either to the poorer cultivators or to the time of distress.

Loans are granted on short and medium terms. Short-term loans are granted for maintenance, seed, weeding and manure and are repayable at the next harvest out of the produce of that crop Medium-term loans are granted for making improvement on land or for purchase of bullocks or agricultural machinery and are generally repayable in five equal instalments yearly

At present money for these purposes is provided from the following sources and detailed statistical information showing the disbursement of these loans in appended:—

(i) State funds, *i.e.*, Ordinary Taccavi (Appendix A-15).

(ii) Borrowings by the State Government from the Government of India for Grow More Food Schemes (Appendices A-16 & 17).

(iii) Funds provided by the Planning and Development Department (Development Taccavi) (Appendix A-18).

(iv) Co-operative institutions (own funds).

(v) Borrowings by the State Co-operative Banks from the Reserve Bank.

Loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act are particularly intended for the improvement of agricultural land. To popularise the schemes of loans under Grow More Food Schemes and to give an incentive to the cultivators for making improvement in their lands, one-fifth of the loans is granted as subsidy to the borrower, provided he utilises the amount properly and fulfils all the conditions of the loan for which it was granted.

Since the great famine of 1899-1900 there have been successive failures of crops necessitating the grant of relief of some special nature in order to remove distress of the people During these days of distress, besides the grant of large amounts as Taccavi loans, remissions in Taccavi loans, were also sanctioned by the State Government.

Economic Depression of the 'Thirties hit hard the agriculturists and from 1929 to 1938 agricultural indebtedness increased to a great extent and the need for reducing it became pressing. The Central Provinces and Berar Debt Conciliation Act was passed in 1933 followed by the Relief of Indebtedness Act in 1939. The first enactment was based largely on the principle of voluntary reduction of debt while the second was meant for statutory reduction of debt based on certain general principles laid down in the Act itself. The administration of these two Acts resulted in shrinkage of the credit of agriculturists

Besides the above, an amount of Rs. two lakhs was sanctioned during the year 1947-48 as Taccavi from State funds for import of bullocks from Gwalior so as to increase, the number of plough bullocks of the old M P State and thereby to bring larger area of arable land of the district under food crops A special loan of Rs. 78,260 for procurement of wheat seed was also sanctioned from State funds during the year 1946-47

With the Grow More Food Campaign there has been a shift of emphasis from the 'protective' to the 'productive' aspect of Taccavi After Independence, Taccavi advances have been made increasingly for stepping up food production.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The cattle besides being a source of milk supply are used as draught animal for the plough or the cart. Without cattle no cultivation would be possible, without cattle no produce could be transported.

At the time of second Settlement, in the closing years of the 19th Century, the number of cattle was enumerated as 5,70,265. This number increased to 6,16,697, *i.e.*, by eight per cent, by about the end of the first decade of the present Century. The details are shown below:—

	At Second Settlement (Attestation) 1890-91 to 1894-95	At Third Settlement (Attestation) 1910-11 to 1912-13	Difference (Percentage)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Working plough bullocks	1,39,668	1,32,948	—5
Others—			
He-buffaloes	56,065	67,416	+20
Cows	1,43,886	1,46,030	+1
Calves	1,51,653	1,87,727	+24
Miscellaneous	78,993	82,576	+5
Total	4,30,597	4,83,749	+12
Grand Total	5,70,265	6,16,697	+8

The increase in the valuable she-buffaloes, which numbered more than 67,000 at third settlement or in year 1912-13 and in young stock, indicated the real progress of cattle farming.

Statistics of the different kinds of livestock for the years 1921, 1941, 1946, 1956, and 1961 are presented in the table below:—

	1921	1941	1946	1956	1961
Cattle	4,19,278 (72.87)	5,68,832 (75.00)	5,53,910 (74.36)	6,45,133 (75.86)	6,76,302 (75.53)
Buffaloes	1,03,766 (18.04)	1,19,431 (15.75)	1,30,618 (17.53)	1,23,605 (14.53)	1,29,449 (14.45)
Sheep	13,670 (2.38)	18,556 (2.45)	12,214 (1.64)	11,759 (1.38)	19,425 (2.17)
Goats . ..	25,907 (4.50)	37,667 (4.97)	35,984 (4.83)	57,616 (6.71)	61,296 (6.85)
Horses and Ponies ..	11,202 (1.95)	7,836 (1.03)	7,090 (0.95)	5,925 (0.70)	4,110 (0.46)
Donkeys and Mules ..	1,473 (0.25)	1,340 (0.18)	1,291 (0.17)	904 (0.11)	810 (0.09)
Camels	33 (0.0)	16 (0.0)	380 (0.05)	25 (0.0)	39 (0.0)
Pigs	..	4,713 (0.62)	3,413 (0.46)	5,462 (0.64)	4,029 (0.45)
Total Livestock ..	5,75,329	7,58,391	7,44,903	8,50,429	8,95,510

The year 1920-21 was a very calamitous one for the cattle on account of severe scarcity of water and fodder whose effects continued during the two succeeding years also. However, during the 40 years 1921-1961, cattle have registered an increase of 61 per cent, buffaloes of 25 per cent and total livestock of 56 per cent. Cattle constituted 76 per cent of the total livestock number of the district. Buffaloes formed 14 per cent of the total numbers. He-buffaloes are habitually exported to Chhattisgarh, where they are in great demand for paddy cultivation.

In the year 1958-59, an area of 4,64,431 acres was classified as 'permanent pasture and other grazing land' and the total livestock population as 7,64,623. These gave 0.6 acres of grazing area for each head of livestock, while the normal requirement of grazing area is one to three acres per head. Hardly any fodder crops are raised. However, schemes for fodder development on a small-scale are being taken up by all the Development Blocks for growing nutritious fodder. Green fodder cultivation is being encouraged where irrigation facilities are available. Forest grading and certain by-products of agriculture are the two principal sources of cattle-feed. Forests afford grazing facilities to the animals. They are sent to the forest particularly from the black soil areas, before the onset of the rainy season. This results in rest to the village grazing grounds and change of pasture. Sagar is mainly a wheat growing area and *bhusa* is available in large quantities for use as cattle-feed. Surplus *bhusa* is usually exported principally from Khurai tahsil to Chhattisgarh area and Bihar State. Jowar and gram which are largely grown in the district are also given to the plough cattle during the agricultural season. Jowar stalks (or *karbi*) are not cut, but the cattle are grazed through the jowar fields after the harvest.

Dairy Farming

The Civil Veterinary Department, Madhya Pradesh established a dairy farm at Ratona on 1st October 1946. It is situated at a distance of seven miles from Sagar, on the right side of Sagar-Bhopal Road. *Tharparkar* cows and *murrah* breeds of buffaloes are being kept at the dairy farm for the production of milk. *Hariana* cows were also kept for this purpose till 1960. The dairy is at present supplying on an average 280-300 litres of milk per day to the Sagar town, and it is normally priced at 80 paise per litre. It also supplies bulls for breeding milch cattle.

As a result of this demonstration dairy, several small units of dairy have been established in Sagar town and adjacent areas where improved cattle are being maintained.

Measures to Improve Quality of Breed

As the cattle supply is essential for different activities connected with agriculture, improvement in the quality of their breeds is a matter of prime importance.

Most of the cattle used in the district are bred locally. Well-to-do cultivators buy imported animals of the Gwalior and Bhopal breeds and also from Panna area, but they will not import a bull. The large white cattle from Bhopal are called Sankha bullocks. The Khurai cattle are generally considered to be the best in the district and are nearer the Central India type. Gwalior and Bhopal cattle are most used in the stiff clayey soils of Khurai

In the year 1926-27 a comprehensive scheme for the improvement of the livestock of the Province was approved by the Provincial Board of Agriculture. The principal aspects of this scheme were—

(1) To set up a cattle farm for the production of a pure breed in each main tract of the Province.

(2) To establish farms in selected localities principally in forest areas for breeding on a large scale

(3) The improvement in milch cattle in urban area.

Malvi is the main superior cattle breed of the district. This is the only breed of the old C. P. and Berar with any pretensions to pedigree. *Malvi* bullocks are good for road and field work. They are economical to feed and can adapt to varying climatic and soil conditions. *Malvi* cows are also of considerable milk giving breed. So under the proposals, the establishment of a centre for producing pure breed *Malvi* cattle, to be located in Sagar district was considered. For improving the buffaloes of the Province, it was suggested that a herd on grade breeding lines using the Delhi buffaloes as a sire should be started in Sagar district in close proximity to the site where the pure breed herd of *Malvi* cattle was to be set up.

A cattle-breeding farm was opened in the year 1938-39 at Dewal an area of 5,000 acres of excellent grassland on the Bina-Jhansi line. It had the reputation of being the biggest breeding farm in the old C. P. and Berar. The livestock at this farm consists of medium-sized *Malvi* stock and *Murrah* buffaloes. Selective breeding was practised and the object was to produce medium sized pure bred *Malvi* and *Murrah* bulls for distribution in the western districts. The improvement of the breed for draught purposes was the immediate objective. The question of improving it for milk did not receive as much attention in the beginning. Experience has shown that these breeds are most suitable for these tracts and the *Murrah* in particular

was introduced with a view to increasing the milk yield and thus provide an impetus to the *ghee* industry. This Farm supplied eight to 12 bulls annually for breeding purposes.

In order to conserve the cattle wealth two orders were issued by the Government of the old Central Provinces and Berar. According to the first Order[1] export of the cattle outside the Provinces was banned. The purport of the second Order[2] was to save all milk and work stock, and so Government banned the slaughter of all useful animals below 10 years of age.

With the same laudable aim of improving cattle, both for milk and draught the Key Village Scheme was inaugurated in the district. This Scheme was enforced in the year 1949 and continued till 1959, when the Scheme for opening Key Village Blocks on Government of India pattern came into existence. The existing Key Village Centres are (1) Narioli (1949), (2) Bijora (1951), (3) Malthone (1954), (4) Kesli (1954), (5) Shahgarh (1955), (6) Kherana (Rehli) 1955, (7) Rahatgarh (1956) and (8) Gadola (Khurai) 1959.

Each Key Village Centre consists of 10, and sometimes more villages, according to the number of bulls and cow population of the Centre. The aim is to run the Key Village Centre on a co-operative basis. Efforts are being made to form Co-operative Pashu Sudhar Societies where bulls are provided by the State and the fodder by the villagers. A Stockman is posted at the Key Village Centre who works in consultation with the Veterinary Assistant Surgeon of the area Besides looking after the health of the cattle, he also maintains the record of their service and calving.

An artificial insemination centre was started at Ratona in April 1958, and similar units were opened at Deori, Khurai and Nariaoli But there is little demand for the services of these centres, and artificial insemination has not as yet gained much popularity in the district. Even the existing facilities are not being fully utilised.

In order to segregate useless and unproductive cattle a Gosadan was started at Dewal in the proximity of the Cattle Breeding Farm in the year 1952. It has a capacity of accommodating 500 cattle. About the same number of cattle is brought to the Gosadan every year. Gosadan staff is sent regularly on appointed days to Bina,

1. Central Provinces and Berar Government, Agriculture Department, Order No 12-2419-X, dated 4th January, 1944

2 Local Self-Government Department Order Nos. 82-3394-M-XIII and 465-1-M-XIII, dated 10th January and 9th February, 1944.

Khurai and Sagar to bring the animals to the Gosadan. Cultivators are also being encouraged to part with their unwanted cattle by sending them to the Gosadan.

The prevalence of cattle diseases is probably one of the most serious obstacles to the improvement of cattle. No programme of cattle development can be successful unless effective steps are taken to prevent cattle wealth from the ravages of cattle diseases.

The most deadly cattle diseases of the district are rinderpest (*mata* or *mahamari*); haemorrhagic-septicaemia (*ghatrunda* or *ghat-sarp*), black quarter (*churrka* or *eklangia*); anthrax (*chhad* or *sad*) and bovince surra (*sarra, jirki* or *zaharbad*).

All ruminants are liable to these maladies but they are more fatal to buffaloes than cattle. There is no known remedy for the first four contagious diseases except that of preventive vaccination. Bovine surra is treated with Pot. Antim. Tartarate and chemo-therapeutical drugs. Seasonal preventive vaccinations are carried out each year for controlling black quarter, haemorrhagic septicaemia and anthrax. Wheat areas are particularly susceptible to black quarter. Rinderpest commonly known as the cattle plague has been the greatest single cause of cattle mortality, more so as cattle in large numbers from adjoining districts are either imported or pass through this district and infect the cattle of the district. With a view to root out this scourge, Rinderpest Eradication Scheme was launched as early as 1935-36 in the district Subsequently a comprehensive Rinderpest Eradication Scheme was launched in 1959-60. This scheme forms a part of the All India Scheme for the Eradication of Rinderpest, taken up in all the States during Second Five-Year Plan with the financial assistance of the Government of India under direction of Central Rinderpest Control Committee of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research. Madhya Pradesh Cattle Diseases Act with rules enacted in 1934 and amended in 1948 have made rinderpest vaccination compulsory and refusal by any cattle owner a cognizable offence.

The first veterinary dispensary was opened at Sagar in the year 1903. Thereafter veterinary dispensaries were opened at each tahsil headquarters, *i.e.*, Khurai, Rehli and Banda in quick succession and subsequently at Nariaoli in April 1954. A District Veterinary Inspector supervised the working of these dispensaries, but the post was abolished in 1932. Then the need to provide veterinary aid in the rural areas began to be felt keenly and the first outlying dispensary was started at Deori in 1939.

Stockman-cum-Health Assistants and Stock Supervisors who were trained at a training school at Wardha and subsequently at Nagpur, were posted for the first time in the beginning of 1949 in groups of villages to render veterinary aid in rural areas. At the same time the post of the District Livestock Officer was also created to supervise all the livestock improvement activities of the district. During the Plan period outlying dispensaries were established at a rapid pace. The places at which they were established together with the years of their establishment are given below:—

Bina 1953
Kesli 1954
Sahajpur 1955
Garhakota 1955
Shahpur 1956
Jaisinghnagar 1957
Khimlasa 1958
Dhana 1959
Mandi Bamora 1959
Baraitha 1960

With the creation of Development Blocks, Veterinary Assistant Surgeons, designated as Veterinary Extension Officers, were posted in these Blocks to dispense veterinary and animal husbandry aid in compact areas. A model scheme for such activities to be undertaken in Development Blocks has been prepared by the Veterinary Department. This was introduced in the year 1959.

One mobile veterinary dispensary was sanctioned for Sagar district and started working from December 1961.

Quarantine Stations have been working since 1938 at Khurai, Malthone, Rahatgarh and Shahgarh, established under Central Provinces and Berar Cattle Diseases Act, 1934. Nomadic herds coming here from Rajasthan, former Madhya Bharat and Vindhya Pradesh regions and Uttar Pradesh are examined, protected and marked against rinderpest. Since then compulsory vaccination in quarantine stations and at the seat of out-breaks has become a regular feature.

Cattle Fairs.—The periodical fairs held in different places in the district stimulate the development of the quality of cattle. The weekly markets at Khurai attract a large number and variety of cattle. Similar markets are held at Kesli in Rehli tahsil and at Rahatgarh in Sagar tahsil. But by far the largest market is during

the annual fair held at Garhakota. It is held from Basant Panchami to Holi every year and is reputed to be of ancient origin, having been started by Raja Mardan Singh some 150 years ago. The fair is still called after his name and is said to be the largest fair in the Mahakoshal region of the State. The animals bought and sold at the fair are bulls, bullocks, cows, buffaloes and horses. The range of their valuation is as follows—

Bulls	Rs. 40 to Rs. 600
Bullocks	Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,600
Cows	Rs. 50 to Rs. 200
He-buffaloes	Rs. 50 to Rs. 500
She-buffaloes	Rs. 100 to Rs. 500
Horses	Rs. 100 to Rs. 1,500

Sheep

Sheep constitute a very small part of the cattle population of the district. Rams of good breed are distributed through Development Blocks to upgrade the local stock. The wool obtained from the sheep is used for making rough quality blankets which are generally used by the agricultural classes.

Poultry Farming

The Livestock Census of 1961 gives the poultry population of the district as 21,871 consisting of 21,631 fowls, 57 ducks and 183 others. The birds are used for food and egg production. As the eggs are gradually occupying increasing place in the Indian diet on account of their nutritive value, their demand is also steadily increasing. Consequently, improved methods are being adopted for poultry farming with a view to stepping up their production. White Leghorn which is a good laying breed is getting popular in the district. Poultry farmers first took to it from about the year 1950. However, it was introduced in the district on some appreciable scale from the year 1954 through the Development Blocks where poultry units were established. Three Units were established in Block areas and two in non-Block areas. The existing Poultry Units are—(1) Khurai (1954), (2) Rehli (1955), (3) Nariaoli (1955), (4) Banda (1956), and (5) Ratona (1956).

As a result of these measures, poultry farming with improved stock has extended both to rural areas, and Sagar town including the military establishments. Backyard poultry has also been started in

the Development Blocks of the district. The position in this regard, in 1966 was as follows:—

(1)	Number of Back-yard poultry units started in rural areas ..	42
(2)	Number of *Desi* cocks in the villages replaced with cocks of improved breed to produce graded birds	389
(3)	Number of hatching eggs of improved breed distributed to produce birds	2,478

Nevertheless, out of a total poultry population of 21,631, enumerated in the Census of 1961, only 790 or 3.6 per cent were counted as of improved variety

Fisheries

A large variety of fishes are found in the district. The more common species have been mentioned in chapter I.

Only four varieties of major carps, *viz.*, *labeo rohita*, *labeo calbasu*, *catla catla* and *cirrhina mrigal* have been taken up for pond culture in the district.

There is a Departmental fish farm at Ratona comprising four fish nurseries covering an area of 15 acres. It is located within the premises of the Government Dairy Farm, Ratona Pisciculture on scientific lines is being done on this Farm

Fish fry (½" size) are reared in Departmental Fish Farm, Ratona, from July to December so as to obtain the fingerling stage size of 5" on an average.

The Department is to take up pisciculture in Sagar lake and the lake would be cleared of all weeds and debris and improved from the hygienic point of view through fish culture

Before fry are liberated in the Farm for rearing, nurseries are ploughed and manured as is done in agriculture fields. This is done to provide necessary growth of micro-organism or plankton to serve as food to fry at least for a few days Afterwards, the fry are artificially fed with powder of linseed oil cake, mustard oil cake and rice bran. The artificial feeding is done by broadcasting the powdered oil-cake and rice bran in respective nurseries all round. Besides, casual netting operations are also taken up to provide sufficient exercise to the fry so that it may not grow sluggish and also to remove the predatory insects and unwanted fishes.

The fingerlings are then stocked in perennial tanks at the rate of 1,000 fingerlings per acre, where they are allowed to grow for a period of three years. Suitable conservancy measures are observed. In the third year, these stocked fingerlings grow to adult size with average weight of eight lbs. in case of *rohu*, 12 lbs. in case of *catla* and six lbs. in case of *mrigal* and *calbasu*. These adults are then fished out on royalty basis through societies to groups of local fishermen.

Fishermen co-operative societies have been organised at Sagar and Khurai. Departmental assistance in the shape of loans and subsidies is given to such societies with a view to helping the fishermen to improve their gear and tackle for effectively participating in the fish extraction programme in departmentally stocked waters.

The control of tanks mostly vests in the Revenue and Irrigation Departments and in Municipal Administration The fishing rights in rivers are owned by Gram Panchayats within their respective jurisdiction

In order to organise and encourage pisciculture development work on a scientific basis a Divisional Fishery Office has been functioning in Sagar since October, 1960

FORESTRY

Village papers recorded an area of 7,30,856 acres (1,142 sq. miles) in the district as forests in the year 1959-60. This came to about 29 per cent of the total geographical area of the district. According to the Departmental figures forests cover an area of 1,065.35 sq. miles consisting of 739.80 sq miles of 'Reserved' forests and 325.55 sq. miles of 'Protected' forests. Besides this an area of about 92 sq. miles of forests (classified as *chhota ghas*) is under the control of the Revenue Department. The forests have been divided into six sub-divisions out of which Khurai range is the largest one covering an area of 211 sq. miles Other ranges are Rehli (185 sq. miles), Sagar (183 sq. miles), Banda (199 sq. miles), Deori (160 sq miles) and Gourjhamer (128 sq. miles). According to third Settlement Report Government 'Reserved' forests covered 749 sq. miles or 19 per cent of the district area scattered all over the district in small blocks. About 70 per cent was in the Rehli and Banda tahsils. Some 406 sq. miles in malguzari area were also classed as tree forest, making the total area under forests 1,155 sq. miles or 29 per cent of the district area.

Consequent on the abolition of malguzari after 31st March 1951, the ownership of all the malguzari forests vested in the State and 325.24 sq. miles of these ex-malguzari forests were handed over to the Forest Department for management.

The forests have a very important place in the economy of the district. Though the forests containing valuable timber are mostly confined to Gourjhamar and Deori Ranges, the others are also important in as much as they provide large areas for grazing. Besides, they are the source of many articles of daily use, *viz*, timber, fuel, charcoal, grass, etc. Timber, besides being used in the construction of shelter is also used in the manufacture of agricultural implements. They provide varied types of raw materials on which a number of industries big and small subsist and they open avenues of employment to a large number of persons engaged in the extraction of forest produce and their conversion into finished products.

Katha is manufactured by boiling the heart wood chips of *khair* tree (*Acacia catechu*) There is a special class of people known as khairwas who come seasonally from adjoining areas of Chhatarpur, Itarsi, Damoh and Raisen for the manufacture of *katha* in the district.

Saw milling gives livelihood to a number of people. There are over 30 saw mills in the district. *Tendu* leaves (*Diospyros melanoxylon*) are the basic raw material for bidi manufacture which is a very flourishing cottage industry carried on through out the district. Important centres of the industry are Sagar, Bandari, Garhakota, Deori, Baleh, Rehli, Rahatgarh, Jaisinagar, Bina, Khurai, Shahgarh and Kesli.

The Basors make baskets, mats, chick, *parda*, etc., from bamboo which find a ready local market. Garhakota is an important centre for this industry. Pan cultivation is carried on in Baleh, Deori, Sagar and Dhana and some other places. Bangla and Bilhari betel leaves of Sagar are famous all over Madhya Pradesh. Pan growers require teak leaves, bamboos and small poles to act as support to pan climbers and also for their packing.

Tanning is practised as a cottage industry for which the material is obtained from the forests. Poor classes of people when not engaged in agricultural work, collect *mahua* flowers, fruits, firewood, bamboos, grass, honey, gums, *baichandi*, etc., and sell them in the local market to supplement their incomes. Forests supply fodder to the livestock population. The shady and well watered upland valleys are excellent pastures; and the barren *bhatuas*, and treeless and stony moors at the foot of the hills are useful in the rains. Cattle from *haveli* tract are sent for grazing during the rains to the 'Reserved' forests in cattle camps, locally known as *gwaries*.

Forest Types

The forests of Sagar district belong to the Northern Tropical Dry-Deciduous type according to Champion's Classification (Group 4b). The forests of the district can be considered under the following broad sub-types: —

(i) Teak forests:

(a) Teak forest on alluvium.

(b) Teak forest on trap. sandstone, etc.

(ii) Mixed forests.

(iii) *Khair* forests.

Mixed type of forests occupy the largest area being 471 sq. miles. Teak forests grow over an area of 255 sq. miles. *Khair* forests are confined to 14 sq. miles only. There is intrinsically no difference in the quality of timber from each category except that the first category of forest provide large size timber and show faster rate of growth. The crop on the sandstone area is poor, and the flat hill tops are often quite devoid of timber. In a few areas in Sagar, Khurai and Banda ranges, the average height of the trees in only 40 ft., but it is better on the trap areas where teak grows on the slopes of the hills.

Forest Produce

Major Produce.—(i) Timber: Teak is the chief species, and is found on the hills when not too rocky. There is a large demand for teak and it is saleable in all sizes. In the Sagar range teak is found over nearly the whole of the district. Of the other species. the next popular are *saj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *bija* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), *lendia* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *tendu* '(*Diaspyros melanoxylon*), *roha* (*Soymida febrifuga*) and *jhingan* (*Odinawodier*). They are found in appreciable quantities all over the forest area, but their market has not fully developed.

(ii) Firewood.—Hard wood species like *saj*, *dhaora*, *bel* and *mokha* are generally preferred but the demand is not confined to these species alone. Almost anything except *dhobin* and *thuar* are used as fuel. The demand for fuel is keen in all the important towns, and the surplus stock is converted into charcoal.

(iii) Charcoal.—It is manufactured on a large-scale all over the district by the contractors. Most of the charcoal is exported from the stations on the Central Railway to places outside Madhya Pradesh

The major forest produce yields a revenue of Rs. 25 lakhs annually.

Minor Produce.—Bamboo occurs only in the interiors of Khurai and Rehli tahsils. The growth of bamboos is dense on the slopes of hills and ravines and generally open on plateaux or areas formerly cultivated. Reproduction is good where the growth is thick. Other principal minor produce include *tendu* leaves for bidi making, grass for thatching and fodder, *khair* trees for *katha* making, gums of *kulu* and other species, and *ghont* and *palas* trees for lac. Other forest products of minor category are *mahua* flower and seed, *achar* seed, honey, wax, hides and horns, gum, roots, bulbs and rhizomes of various species for food and spices, *palas* bark, *mahul* leaves, *ghont* fruit, thorns, earth and stones.

Minor forest produce contributes about Rs. 4 lakhs per year to the revenue of the State.

The district is self sufficient in the matter of forest produce. The figures given below show the volume and value of some important forest products from 1956-57 to 1960-61 :

Year	Timber		Firewood		Bamboo		Tendu Leaves		Horns, Hides	Bones etc
	Out-turn ('000 Cft.)	Value ('000 Rs.)	Out-turn ('000 Cft.)	Value ('000 Rs.)	Out turn ('000 Nos.)	Value ('000 Rs.)	Out-turn (Tons)	Value ('000 Rs.)	Out-turn (Tons)	Value (Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1956-57	451	1193	692	725	89	5	5604	443	2 3/4	1100
1957-58	300	1250	205	641	93	8	7856	264	50	3334
1958-59	767	1983	827	150	276	16	6500	283	100	2444
1959-60	795	2297	1265	436	133	25	5575	311	51	5726
1960-61	773	1963	2090	934	159	13	10451	537	41	3760

In the past the forests suffered much due to excessive fellings and the system of cultivation known as *dhya*. This practice of shifting cultivation sometimes resulted in the entire destruction of valued forests without giving any adequate return, since the crops raised were the poorest, such as kodon.

Forest conservancy was not thought of till 1860, when a Conservator of Forests (Capt. Pearson) was appointed for the whole Province as then constituted. The first Forest Act was brought into force in 1865. Till the year 1872, the forests were under the control of the Deputy Commissioner, when they were handed over to the Forest Department on the appointment of a Forest Officer, who selected and demarcated the areas for reservation. In this year the six first class

reserves, namely, Garhakota, Ramna, Tighora, Rangir, Hatkho and Ranipura were formed. The forests were surveyed and mapped from 1887 to 1896, and the well-preserved hunting grounds of the former rulers, *viz*., Garhakota, Ramna, Tighora and other first class blocks then formed the best forests of the district.

Up to the year 1892, licence holders were permitted freely to cut all timber, except teak grown on the fire protected areas for which the sanction of the Divisional Forest Officer had to be obtained. As a result high stools were left and reproduction was bad. In 1893 all forests were closed to the cutting of green wood except certain areas which were formed into provisional working circle. Here coppice fellings were made but only intermittently or difficulties were encountered in disposing off the produce. On good soils the results of the felling were excellent. Reproduction was plentiful and the shoots showed rapid growth. On the poorer soils the growth was not so good, but the number of shoots was satisfactory.

The forests are mixed in composition and irregular in age gradation. In the ex malguzari forests teak trees are neither large nor
tion. In the ex-malguzari forests teak trees are neither large nor
as a rule the result of coppice production. The average height is 40 ft. and average girth at breast height 20 inches. The growth of the teak is unfortunately bad, the trees being distorted and generally unfit for timber. The bulk of the government forests have not yet been protected long enough to show good growth of timber. The malguzari forests had been cut badly in the past but considerable areas were subsequently closed. Again, when the impending legislation regarding the abolition of malguzari came to be known the malguzars allowed their forests to be exploited ruthlessly. Their selfish activities did not stop even after the enforcement of the enactment relating to the abolition of the proprietary rights. The Police, Revenue and Forest Departments had to tighten up their vigilence to protect the forests from the depredations of human greed, and proper conservancy measures were taken up subsequently.

First Working Plan.—The 'Reserved' forests of the Division are worked on scientific basis according to the working plan prepared for 15 years with the aim of improving the growing stock and providing sustained yield for the benefit of posterity. The 'Protected' forests are being worked on ad hoc working schemes. The entire working area is planned to be worked in 20 years on improved lines.

The first working plan for the systematic management of the 'Reserved' forests of Division was prepared in 1906 and brought into force from the year 1908-09 Under this Plan the 'Reserved' forests

were divided into three categories, *viz.*, the more accessible forests with enough demand for timber and fuel, the remoter areas with little demand, and the grazing grounds The accessible areas were situated mostly in the Khurai, Sagar and Banda ranges and formed about 30 per cent of the total area, the remoter forests were situated mostly in the Deori and Rehli ranges and formed about 20 per cent of the area, and the grazing grounds formed about 50 per cent of the total area of the 'Reserved' forests. Although the method prescribed for the accessible areas was Coppice with standard, the forests were worked on improved lines resorting to clear felling, wherever feasible. The felling cycle prescribed was 30 years. However, variations in the cycle over limited areas were made to cater for demands of specialised professions, such as iron smelting in Shahgarh and pan growing near Baleh The inaccessible forests and the grazing grounds were open to consumers only for the removal of fire wood Bamboos were worked on a felling cycle of three (later raised to four) years *Khair* trees were also exploited for the extraction of catechu

Second Working Plan. Somersmith's Plan was revised by R. N. Datta and brought into operation from 1934-35. In this Plan the accessible areas were extended over 348 sq. miles and were worked under the modified Coppice with reserve system The remoter areas extending over 280 sq miles of 'Reserved' forests were for the first four years worked under the Selection *cum* Improvement system and later transferred under the Coppice with Reserve system. The best forests of Gourjhamar and Hatkoh (27 sq. miles) were worked under the High Forest system to produce large sized timber, Mature *khair* trees were exploited and bamboos were worked on a four year cycle Under this Plan 657 sq miles of the 'Reserved' forests were included for working as against only 231 sq miles under the last Plan.

Effect of Forest Policy.—About 157 sq. miles of 'Reserved' forest under the first and about 322 sq miles under the second Working Plan have already been worked over, while mature and mostly unsound growing stock has been replaced by the vigorous, healthy growth of poles and scattered large trees upto three feet in girth. The proportion of valuable species like teak has increased. The reproduction has come up well and density has also improved. Infesting climbers have been cut and weed growth has been reduced. Fire protection was extended over the whole area by 1893 and the forests have been to an extent successfully protected against fire.

The Division also had to share the burden of war supplies of timber during the Second World War when fellings outside the Working Plan were ordered. A good network of fair-weather forest roads connecting P W D. roads was constructed, rest houses built and a number of tanks and wells were maintained. Regeneration of the forest by plantation of teak has recently been started. The bamboos all over the Division have suffered due to heavy and irregular exploitation at the hands of the consumers. The bamboos occupy only 23 sq. miles of forest all of which is not fit for commercial exploitation.

Current Working Plan.—Datta's Plan has been replaced in 1955-56 by the current working plan. Due to increase in population, extension of cultivation and consequent shrinkage of area under forests, the demand for timber, fuel and other forest produce has tremendously increased, and at places exceeded the annual increment of the forest. The construction of a network of fair weather forest roads and the advent of motor vehicles have made all parts of the forest easily accessible Under the declared National and State Forest Policy the forests have to be preserved under the principles of balanced and complementary land use for the maintenance of the climate and physical features, to arrest soil erosion and to provide grazing, timber, fire-wood and other forest produce for domestic use, agriculture, industry, communications and defence In order to fulfil these objects the aims of the management of forests are to conserve, tend, improve and exploit the forests to make these perpetually productive and to realise a sustained annual yield without diminishing the capital.

The steep and precipitous slopes need protection against soil erosion and are to be managed with a view to minimise floods and desiccation. Felling in such areas has to be confined only to the dead and dying trees. The compact good quality tree forests can produce large-sized timber for industries under the High forest system on a long rotation The minor forests which include the bulk of the forests of the district have to supply the growing demand of small and medium-sized timber for agriculture and house building and the open forests the pastures to provide grazing for the village cattle.

In accordance with the above considerations the best forests, situated mostly in the Rehli tahsil, have been allotted to the High

Forest Working Circle (55 sq. miles), the forests which can grow only medium and small-sized timber to the Coppice-with-Reserves Working Circle (438 sq miles), and the poorer, open and rocky areas under the Improvement Working Circle (185 sq. miles). The rest of the area constitutes the Miscellaneous Working Circle and includes the pastures, grass *bir*s and forest villages Lac growing on the lac-host trees has been prescribed for the first time, but the low price of the commodity and the high cost of production have prevented large-scale operation of lac cultivation Bamboos are exploited under a felling cycle of four years. *Khair* over 15" in girth at base is exploited for the manufacture of *katha*. The lopping of *kullu* has also been prescribed. Plantations of teak and other superior species are being raised to aid natural regeneration and to convert the good quality forests under mixed crop to more valuable teak forests.

Concessions

Forest wealth has to be so managed as to provide perpetual benefits to the mankind. But increasing human population and livestock numbers, extension of cultivation accompanied by indiscriminate and wasteful use of timber and fire-wood under the garb of age-old systems and rights are proving detrimental to the forests. The 'Reserved' forests are free from rights while the 'Protected' forests are burdened with *nistar* rights. The *nistar* rights include removal of small timber (up to 21" girth at breast height), fire-wood, bamboo and thatching, fodder, grass and thorns at concessional rates, leaves, roots, edible fruit and grazing free of charge for the agriculturists, agricultural labour and village artisans Village artisans are also given forest produce at nominal rates for their occupational *nistar* from various coupes worked departmentally as well as from coupes under contractors. Other consumers can avail of this facility at the commercial depots at commercial rates

Grazing is permitted over the whole of forest area both 'Reserved' and 'Protected' except for five years in areas worked under main felling operations; the coupes closed to grazing from about 10 per cent of the forest. The forests are not in a position to support the existing cattle population and incidence of grazing is very heavy. The easily accessible better quality forests are grazed most About 1,60,000 cattle graze in the forests annually.

The forests are not able to cope with concessions allowed by the popular Government. Efforts are, therefore, being made to regularize the *nistar* supply by the preparation of working schemes for the valuable forests, localising felling by the formation of coupes and felling series, opening of *nistar* depots fed from the 'Reserved' forests

to supply small wood, firewood and timber at concessional rates to the agriculturists for the departmentally worked coupes.

With the aim of developing fodder resources of the district, fuel-*cum*-fodder reserves are being created in various villages with the co-operation of the villagers. A scheme for the improvement of pasture and grazing has been started under the Third Five Year Plan.

Exploitation

The bulk of the forest produce of the Division is exploited through the agency of contractors who purchase the produce in open auction. Consumers are permitted to extract some forest produce such as fire-wood, bamboos, grass, thorns, leaves, *etc.*, on payment of royalty to the Department through the agency of vendors. Thinning and cultural operations and exploitation of poles for *nistar* and commercial depots are done by the Department.

Plantations

At present the Department is raising teak plantations, the most valuable species of trees occurring in the district. During the Second Five Year Plan period (1956-57 to 1960-61) plantations were created over an area of 430 acres.

Research

Though there is no centre or school devoted to research in forestry as such scientific research is carried out in the Division under the supervision of the State Silviculturist to study natural regeneration of valuable species, rate of growth in teak and other species, thinning regimes, *etc.*

Centenary of Forest Conservancy

The Sagar Forest Division celebrated the Centenary of Forest Conservancy by raising 100 acres of teak plantation in the 'Protected' forest of Pithoria in Khurai range. To mark the occasion 100 selected trees have been preserved for life in different compartments of 'Reserved' forest. Also, one whole coupe No. VIII of Kishangarh H. F. F. S. (73 acres) containing good quality teak has been formed into a preservation plot in compartment 93 of Gourjhamar range. Another preservation plot of *kardhai* (*Anogeissuspendula*) has been laid out in compartment No. 40 of the Ramna reserve over an area of 25 acres.

FAMINES

We have seen earlier how the prospects of agriculture hang precariously on the caprices of the monsoons. The hilly parts of the district particularly, where the soil is light, are especially susceptible to a failure of the later rains. Such are the northern parts of Banda tahsil, the west and south of Sagar tahsil, the Baleh Mohli tract and the Kesli Tada tract of Rehli tahsil. On the other hand, when there are excessive rains or heavy rains out of season, it is the richer class of soil with good crop that suffers due to rust and other damages.

Russell's Gazetteer of Sagar District (1906) gives an admirable account[1] of the early cycles of bad years that had dogged the district from 1818 onwards. One of the worst periods of famine was in 1854-55 when heavy rains at the beginning of the cold weather ruined wheat, gram and barley. The suffering and distress caused by the failure of crops were remembered even 30 years later, when people still spoke of the 'great blight' of 1854. The year 1868-69 saw the ravages of what was known as the great Bundelkhand famine caused by a complete failure of the rains which abruptly ended in August. Distress was particularly acute in Banda tahsil which adjoined Bundelkhand. The figure of mortality during the year was three times more than the normal figure.

The havoc and distress of the famine of 1854 were surpassed by the disastrous ruin of crops caused in 1894 by excessive rains in September to November which swamped the seedlings and destroyed the wheat crop which in that year covered 60 per cent of the cropped area. The mortality during the year was 43 per mille as against 29 per mille in the preceding year.

The cycle of bad years which commenced in 1892 practically continued upto the end of the Century. In 1894-95 heavy rains reduced the harvest to about 17 per cent of the normal, and the death rate in 1894 was 51.86 per mille. Wet years were followed by years of drought, successively from 1895-96. There was acute distress in 1896-97 due to scanty and ill-distributed rains. One effect of the successive years of famine was the fall in the area under crops. The net cropped area dropped from about 10 lakh acres in 1894-95 to about 7.47 lakh acres in 1896-97. The mortality rate in 1896-97 was one of the highest ever recorded. As against the decennial mean death rate of 38.37 per mille, the figure for 1896 was 72.63 and for 1897 was 87.25. Khurai town registered a death rate of 143.17 per mille.

1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, pp 173-179

The crops of 1897-98 were not more than fair, the whole out-turn being only 61 per cent of the normal. The autumn of 1898 saw a large area under jowar which was greatly injured by the abnormally heavy rainfall of the year while the spring crops again suffered from frost and hail and meagre cold weather rain. The whole out-turn was only 33 per cent of the normal. The rains of 1899 proved a failure and the combined out-turn was again about a third of the normal.

With the beginning of the present Century, there was a break in the succession of famine years, and since then, though there have been years of scarcity loss of life has not been reported.

In 1907-08, scarcity was experienced in the district due to failure of rains. No part of the district received any rains after 11th September. This resulted in drought condition all over the district and Kharif crops of Banda tahsil and areas of south-east of the district were affected seriously. On account of insufficiency of rains the net cropped area declined by 30,000 acres (3.5 per cent) and double cropped area by 11,700 acres (65 per cent) over the previous year. The percentage of normal yield of normal area of produce of all the crops declined from 83 to 45. The situation was aggravated by widespread famine conditions in the United Provinces and Central India and scarcity conditions in some parts of Bengal. Consequently relief was granted to the cultivators in the shape of financial assistance. Taccavi loans were sanctioned to the extent of Rs 92,826 and Rs. 54,417 under the Agriculturists' Loans and Land Improvement Loans Acts, respectively Remission in the land revenue totalling Rs 2,144 was given and suspension thereof amounted to Rs. 165,597.

Abrupt cessation of the rains in September 1918 again caused scarcity conditions in 1918-19. The prospects of the Kharif crop till the second week of September were fairly bright; but the monsoon disappeared suddenly and there was practically no rain till almost the end of November. The Kharif crops were badly hit everywhere, and in Banda tahsil 706 sq. miles of area was badly affected.

Although crop failure was widespread and severe the distress need not have assumed serious proportions but for two important factors. The first was the large exports of grain in the previous years. These depleted the reserves with the result that prices had already risen to a height which would ordinarily be regarded as famine level. The second factor was the serious and widespread epidemic of influenza during July-November 1918 which coincided with the Kharif harvest and Rabi sowings and caused heavy mortality and left a large number of people weakened in body and

enfeebled in spirit Relief was granted to the cultivators in the shape of remission and suspension of land revenue to the extent of Rs. 3,726 and Rs. 94,702, respectively, in the year 1918-1919 and Taccavi loans amounting to Rs 56,289 under Agriculturists' Loans Act and Rs 50,836 under Land Improvement Loans Act were given by the Government.

In the year 1927-28, heavy rainfall in cold weather caused severe rust in wheat, gram and linseed. Reported out-turns of wheat and linseed were only three and four annas, respectively. This was followed by a partial failure of the Kharif crops in November 1928 and the almost complete destruction of the Rabi crops in January 1929.

In the beginning of 1929 the prospects were bright and early cessation of relief operations was anticipated. At the end of January, however, a sudden wave of severe cold swept over the district and light to heavy showers accompanied by hail were also received which caught most of the wheat and gram in the ear, a serious damage to the crops occurred. Rabi crops were severely damaged for the second year in succession

There was a partial failure of the Kharif crops in 1929 again owing to the shortage of rains in September 1929 and failure of the Rabi crops in 1930 due to lack of moisture. The fresh departure in dealing with crop failure of 1928 and 1929 was the extent to which money was advanced to ensure the sowing of the ensuing crop and the issue of Taccavi in the form of seed.

There were unprecedented and inopportune heavy rains in the years 1931-32, 1932-33, and 1934-35. The monsoon broke out earlier than usual in these years and the result was that the cultivators did not find time to sow the normal area of Kharif crops. Besides, the Kharif crops which were already sown were badly damaged on account of heavy rains. Rabi crops of 1931-32 were also damaged by hails. Consequently relief was granted to the cultivators in the shape of remission and suspension of land revenue and remission of Taccavi loans Land revenue amounting to Rs. 2,27,245 was remitted in 1931-32 and Rs. 6,629 of land revenue suspended. Taccavi loans under the Agriculturists' Loans Act totalling nearly Rupees six lakhs were remitted in 1932-33.

During the period from 1927 to 1935, one severe blow after another reduced the whole district to considerable distress, and the opening of regular famine works throughout the district became necessary. But since the district is predominantly Rabi producing area, the opening of famine works consequent on the failure of Kharif crops, was not justified. Adequate relief was, therefore, given by (a) expansion of forest works such as the construction of forest roads, (b) engagement of labour in lopping forest *ghont* for preparation of lac, and (c) grant of forest concessions. These are confined to free extraction of head loads of grass and fuel and minor products except lac.

As a result, the Season and Crop Report for 1935-36 was in a position to comment that, "Debt conciliation operations, the liberal distribution of Taccavi loans and other measures for the alleviation of the lot of the peasant, combined with the rapidly growing public interest in rural problems and the welfare of the tiller of the soil, have all put heart into the agriculturists at a time of continued hardship."

There were heavy rains in the year 1939-40, 1940-41, 1941-42 and 1942-43 in this district. In 1941-42 Rabi crops were damaged due to hail and rust on account of unseasonal winter showers. Consequently relief was granted to the cultivators in the shape of remission and suspension of land revenue as detailed under:—

Year	Remission	Suspension
(1)	(2) Rs.	(3) Rs.
1939-40	6,140	77,515
1940-41	1,356	24,065
1941-42	22,566	55,923

During the year 1946-47, widespread rust and frost appeared in the district. The late sown wheat crop was practically destroyed while the early sown wheat was already in the full grip of the calamity. Consequently land revenue to the extent of Rupees five lakhs was remitted, Taccavi loans (GMF) amounting to Rs. 1.76 lakhs were sanctioned and 72,000 bags of wheat seed were distributed as Taccavi loan.

During the year 1950-51, the main tract of the district affected by scarcity was Rurawan having an area of 1,59,429 acres and a population of 43,545. By October 1950, the situation began to cause anxiety and preparations were made to open relief camps. The Forest Department permitted the free extraction of edible

fruits from the forests. From December onwards metal breaking camps were started in the affected tracts. When the time for harvesting of Rabi crops came all the labourers migrated to Rabi tracts and by March 1951 all the camps were finally closed. Forest Department engaged labourers in grass cutting, repairs to roads and tanks.

Along with the grant of suspensions and remissions of land revenue, relief was also afforded by suspension of the recovery of Taccavi instalments falling due for recovery along with the land revenue *kist*. Besides, large sums were advanced under the Agriculturists' Loans Act, Land Improvement Loans Act both under ordinary Taccavi and Taccavi under the various Grow More Food Schemes.

Due to excessive cold in the last week of January 1954, Rabi crops were appreciably damaged, qualifying for relief in 542 villages of the district Consequently suspension and remission of land revenue were sanctioned and relief works were also started as detailed below : —

(a) Suspension and remission of land revenue Rabi *kist* 1953-54

Tahsil	Villages (No.)	Suspension (Rs.)	Villages (No.)	Remission (Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Sagar	65	25,876	323	69,399
Rehli			29	891
Khurai			56	10,169
Banda			69	26,881
Total ..	65	25,876	477	1,07,340

(b) Taccavi loans granted :

	Agriculturists' Loans	Land Improvement Loans
	(Rs.)	(Rs.)
(i) Ordinary Taccavi ..	8,16,869	18,670
(ii) G. M. F. Taccavi ..	95,200	1,16,473

The monsoon broke out earlier than usual in 1956-57 and there were unprecedented, heavy and continuous rains. The result was that the cultivators did not find time to sow the normal

area of Kharif crops and the Kharif crops already sown badly damaged. Consequently relief was granted to the cultivators in the shape of suspension of land revenue as under :—

Tahsil	Villages (No.)	Amount Suspended (of Kharif Kist 1956-57)
(1)	(2)	(3)
		Rs.
Rehli ..	184	38,823
Khurai ..	175	32,522
Banda ..	157	47,629
Total ..	516	1,18,974

A natural consequence of the untimely rains was the attack of rust. There was widespread rust which covered an area of about 80 per cent in the district. The late sown wheat crop was nearly completely damaged. The early sown wheat was already in the full grip of the calamity and its estimated out-turn was also not promising, specially in Sagar and Rehli tahsils where the damage has been very severe. To make matters worse, there were as many as four onslaughts of hail-storms accompanied by heavy downpours. Consequently relief had to be granted in the shape of remission of land revenue, shown below:—

(a) Suspension and remission of land revenue of Rabi *kist* 1956-57.

Tahsil	Villages (No.)	Suspension (Rs.)	Villages (No.)	Remission (Rs.)
Sagar	486	3,54,786	143	64,699
Khurai	156	53,389	58	16,755
Rehli	468	2,01,795	91	43,199
Banda	130	47,710	1	129
Total ..	1,240	6,57,680	293	1,24,782

(b) Taccavi loans granted :

	Agriculturists' Loans	Land Improvement Loans
	Rs.	Rs.
(i) Ordinary Taccavi	3,49,695	22,000
(ii) G. M. F. Loans ..	45,648	1,83,929
(iii) C. D./N. E. S. Loans	12,610	.

Due to cessation of monsoon early in September 1957, and the disappearance of winter rains followed by a fall of hail storm in the last week of February 1958, the crops of 68 villages, involving 3,355 cultivators in the district, were badly damaged and remission amounting to Rs. 49,742 was sanctioned. In 945 villages the out-turn of Rabi crops in 1957-58 was found to be below annas four and in 393 villages the out-turn was between annas four to annas six. These villages thus qualified for full and half suspension of land revenue, respectively. Suspension and re-suspension of land revenue was granted to the affected cultivators as detailed below. Relief works were also started.

Tahsil	Villages No.	Suspension Rs.	Villages No.	Remission Rs.
Sagar	487	2,76,620	42	40,064
Rehli	639	3,08,061	17	5,348
Khurai	118	34,912	2	97
Banda	94	36,524	7	4,233
Total ..	1,338	6,56,117	68	49,742

(b) Re-suspension of Rabi *kist* 1956-57 till Rabi crops of 1958-59

Tahsil	Villages No.	Amount Rs.
Sagar	446	3,38,088
Rehli	447	1,97,127
Khurai	86	26,085
Banda	68	31,019
Total ..	1,047	5,92,319

(c) Taccavi Loans granted:—

	Agriculturists' Loans	Land Improvement Loans
	Rs.	Rs.
(i) Ordinary Taccavi ..	2,02,525	51,810
(ii) G. M. F. Taccavi ..	1,08,178	1,82,303
(iii) C. D./N. E. S. Taccavi	..	1,46,605

A study of the famines which had gripped the district, and sometimes had brought the entire population to unmitigated

misery, shows that most of the serious crop failures had been due to the failure of the autumn rains. The rainfall of June, July and August is of course. essential to the cultivation of the Kharif crop, but to bring these crops to maturity, the rainfall of September and October is very important, and out-turn of the harvest entirely dependent on this. The character of the rainfall of these two months determines the successful sowing and germination of the Rabi crops, so that adequate downpour during these two months makes the difference between a bumper crop and a lean crop. The cultivating families with great anxiety await these nectar-like showers and welcome their arrival.

November rain is not required for cultivation and is specially disastrous if it follows a wet October, both spoiling the Kharif crops and laying the foundation for rust in wheat and linseed. December and January showers are very beneficial to the Rabi crops. February rains come too late if drought conditions have already prevailed; but if the previous months had been cloudy or rainy they lay the foundations of severe losses from rust and caterpillars which are chiefly fostered by cloudy weather during the winter.

March rains are damaging both to the ripening crops standing in the fields and to harvested produce ready for separation of grain from chaff at the threshing ground. A failure of the Rabi may occur not only by the action of rust and caterpillars but also by that of frost at the flowering time.

Famine or scarcity is usually due to failure in successive years of the monsoon, specially in September and October. for failure of the crop in one single year does not necessarily bring about severe scarcity or famine. Distress depends on the previous economic history of the district or the tract.

The description of past famines also shows that the administration of relief in Sagar has generally been complicated by the influx of starving refugees from the adjoining areas.

The frequent famines resulting in abandonment of cultivated lands have created a difficult problem peculiar to Sagar, namely, the reversion of the black soil to scrub jungle and infestation with *kans*. This makes it a formidable task to reclaim the land in subsequent years, and thus affects the agricultural economy of the district adversely.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

According to the recent population Census of 1961 the total population of Sagar district was 7,96,547 persons This, however, relates to the boundaries of Sagar district as redrawn in 1956 omitting the Damoh sub division which was formed into a separate district. The number of "workers", as defined for Census purposes was 77,018 engaged in the "household industry" and 6,719 in "manufacturing other than household industry". The total population dependent on industries proper thus works out to 83,737 in the year 1961, that is approximately 9.8 per cent. As against this, the total population of the district according to 1951 Census was 9,93,654.[1] Out of this, the population dependent on industries, excluding mines was 44,136. Mining and quarrying in the district engaged 1,155 persons. The percentage of population dependent on industries including mines, therefore, works out to 4.6.

During the census years 1911 and 1921 the general population was divided into "actual workers" and "dependents". For these years the population of "actual workers" which corresponds to the population of "self supporting persons" in the 1951 Census, was as under—

Year	Total population	Actual workers	Percentage
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1911	8,75,379		4.92
Mining and Quarrying Industries		201	
1921	8,16,438	42,903	
Mining and Quarrying Industries		40,069	4.90

In the Census of 1931 the division of population was made into "earners" and "working dependents". Taking the number of "earners" as corresponding to the "self-supporting" persons in 1951 Census, the number of persons dependent on industries was 23,810, while in mining and quarrying it was 85 Together the percentage to total population works out to 2.80.

The population dependent on different industries classified under broad industrial divisions for 1951 Census purposes was as under—

Division 2—Processing and manufacture of food stuffs, textiles, leather and products thereof.	28,228
Division 3—Processing and manufacture of metals, chemicals and products thereof.	2,105
Division 4—Processing and manufacture not elsewhere specified	8,227
Division 5—Construction and utilities	5,576

1. The 1951 Census figures used in this Chapter are inclusive of Damoh district.

These divisions of industries generally correspond to the sub-class III of industries of the Census for the years 1911, 1921 and 1931. Taking the figure of population dependent on industries it becomes apparent that over a period of about half a century the population dependent on industries and mines remained more or less stationary in spite of the rise in general population. The reasons for the fall in the percentage of industrial population in the years 1921 and 1931 in the district may be sought in the famine conditions (1918-1919), influenza epidemic and trade depression of the 'thirties, respectively. The fact however, remains that any attempt at an accurate comparison between the figures of industrial population for different Census periods is fraught with difficulties due to the changing concepts of economic classification of general population, and changes in the territory of the district from time to time

OLD TIME INDUSTRIES

Cotton spinning, dyeing of cloth, spinning of wool, gold and silver work, bell metal, brass and copper work, iron work, carpentry and woodwork, pottery making and leather work, are some of the old time industries in the district.

In the industrial set-up of the district cotton spinning and weaving occupied an important place, but it could not assume the form of a large-scale factory industry as in other industrially advanced districts of the State. Out of the hand-spun thread coarse carpets, bags, *niwar* cloth and cart covers used to be manufactured. Mill spun yarn was solely used for weaving coarse *dhotis* with red borders for children and red cloth with black borders for women. The products of this industry even now retain this quality and cater to the needs of the local population The chief centres of cloth weaving were Rehli, Deori and Gourjhamar. Garhakota was described in 1850 as a 'chief cotton-mart', the principal articles woven being *addas* or clothes in red, white and blue stripes, which were made into *lahengas* or skirts for women. Very few of these are, however, made now. In the past the profession of weaving was confined to certain castes. There were definite weaving castes like Koris, Chadar, Kostis, and Momins. One special variety of cloth for women was the head-cloth woven with gold and silver thread. With the changes in fashion in later days the weaving of such costly cloth has become a rarity.

The art of cloth dyeing was a flourishing industry among a class of people in the district, and served as a subsidiary to the spinning and weaving industry.

The dyeing of cloth was practised by certain people known as Rangrezes, who are Muslims, Chhippas and Rangaris. Rehli, Garhakota, and Gourjhamar which are the centres of cotton spinning and weaving industry were also the centres of dyeing industry.

Manufacture of coarse country blankets out of the wool gathered from the sheep reared locally by the shepherds is even now a common rural industry as it was in the olden days. The blankets manufactured by the shepherds in old days used to fetch Rs. 2 or 3 for superior quality while rougher quality of blankets were sold for one rupee to one rupee two annas. Khurai blankets were known as *ral*. Pinjaras in Sagar city also prepared saddles out of unspun wool.

Workers in gold and silver known as Sonars numbered few hundreds in the district, who pursued this craft as a cottage industry.

The increasing scarcity of precious metals and the availability of cheap jewellery in the bazars, tended to drive the Sonars out of their profession and some of them began to practise agriculture. The hard manual work required in agriculture resulted in the loss of a deft touch of hand necessary for working in these precious metals, with the result that some took to working in baser metals like brass, and preparing of chains, bells and boxes out of these baser metals.

Bell metal ornaments are usually worn by the women of poorer classes, but bell metal pots for purposes of eating and drinking are being used practically in all households. Bell metal is an alloy of copper and tin or pewter, and cooking pots are not made of this metal as it cannot sustain fire. Audhia Sonars who were looked down upon by other Sonars working in gold and silver practised the manufacture of bell metal pots and ornaments. Sagar, Tigora, Jaisinghnagar, Rahatgarh, Isharwara, Deori, Khurai, Khimlasa are some of the places, where this industry was prevalent.

Manufacture of brass and copper utensils, instruments, idols and toys is also practised in the district. Copper horns for use as musical instruments and a kind of bugle called *turhi* were also manufactured out of this metal. Sagar, Khurai and Etawa were the centres where this industry was located.

Cottage establishment of village Lohar and Blacksmith manufacturing agricultural implements and mending them is as old as our rural set-up. Besides these traditional manufacturing activities some of the more enterprising Lohars in the district also manufactured ornamental iron nut-crackers at Deori. Lock manufacturing was also practised on a small-scale. Cottage establishment of village Lohar still continues to exist in every Indian village forming an integral part of the village economy.

Like village Lohar, the village Carpenter is also a part and parcel of village economy. The manufacturing activities of the Carpenters are limited to the manufacture of wooden agricultural implements and repairing them. In 1891 Sagar had more Carpenters than any district except Jabalpur. The Census of 1901 showed a sharp decrease in this class. Ornamental wood-work on the wood was also done by the Carpenters, specimen of which are extant in the Jain temples. Kunderas or turners manufactured taps, toys, cups, chessmen, *hookahs* and other articles also. Besides Carpenters there are also bamboo workers in the district known as Basors who also acted as musicians in the olden days, while their women folk worked as midwives. Baskets of all types and sizes, winnowing fans, matting. screens and *chiks*, brooms, etc., are manufactured by Basors.

Earthen pots for cooking and storing water are manufactured by the village potter known as Kumhars. They also manufactured bricks and tiles. Cottage establishment of a Kumhar is a regular feature of the village set-up.

Manufacturing of glass and lac bangles was practised at Pithoria, Garhola, Garhakota and Rahatgarh in the district. Balls of rough glass used to be imported from Kanpur and crude glass bottles for holding scented oils and medicines were also manufactured. Lac bangles were manufactured by a caste of Lakheras. But locally made bangles soon lost their appeal to the women folk in competition with the bangles manufactured elsewhere from the transparent glass imported from Austria.

Leather industry in the district at the beginning of the present century was engaging about 12,000 persons. The persons engaged in the industry were village Chamars catering to the local needs of the population. Better class of shoes with ornamental designs were

also manufactured at Rahatgarh and Sagar. The industry, however, declined partly because of the demand for raw hides for export, and partly due to the competition from machine-made leather goods.

The reasons for the decline of these old time industries in the district are not far to seek. None of these industries was, in fact, in a flourishing state. They were mostly village industries, which are even now found in the rural areas throughout India, subsisting on the patronage of village communities. As better road and rail communication facilities brought cheaper and better machine-made goods to the centres, where these industries were carried on, the local manufacturers practising their ancestral trade and following the old manufacturing techiques had to give way. Thus, for example better and cheaper mill made cloth ruined the handloom spinning and weaving industry. Leather goods like shoes, etc., manufactured in the big factories in attractive designs took the bread out of the mouth of the village Mochi. Bangles made out of the transparent glass from Austria, lured the village belles to give up their crude glass and lac bangles Thus the better and cheaper machine-made goods brought to the doors of the consumers, through increased road and rail communications, spelt the ruin of these old time industries, in this district as elsewhere Nevertheless, the village Blacksmiths, Potters, Carpenters and Mochis who were the prime movers, as it were, in the old time industrial set-up of the district, still continue to drudge in the rural areas of the district, as they do elsewhere in India.

POWER

A thermal power station was started at Sagar in the year 1930 when a steam plant with an installed capacity of 2,500 K.W. and diesel oil plant with an installed capacity of 320 K.W. were installed. This thermal power station was started by the Sagar Electricity Supply Co., under the managing agency of Martin Burn Ltd., which still continues to hold the lease. The capital invested in the establishment is of the order of Rs. 18,00,000. The power house provides employment to about 100 workers daily

In the year 1957 a diesel power station was commissioned at Bina with an installed capacity of 314 K.W. It has three diesel driven generating sets of 150 K.W. capacity each, with a capital investment of Rs. one lakh. It provides employment to about 23 workers and caters to the power requirements of Railways only. Sagar, Bina,

Garhakota. Bardha, Khurai. Khamaria, Vijaypur, Lohagarh, Chourai, Rangaon, Patnakakri, Patkri, Bararu, Samrabagh and Media are some of the towns and villages which have been electrified in Sagar district. The total number of consumers of electricity during the years from 1950 onwards is given below.—

Year	No. of Consumers
(1)	(2)
1950	1,274
1951	1,505
1952	1,596
1953	1,726
1954	1,800
1955	N.A.
1956	1,896
1957	N.A.
1958	2,006

The figures showing the consumption of electricity for industrial uses were.—

Year	(K.W. Hrs, in millons) Industrial Power Low and Medium Voltage
(1)	(2)
1950	0.395
1951	0.445
1952	0.461
1953	0.477
1954	0.488
1955	N.A.
1956	0.524
1957	N.A.
1958	0.710

It is apparent from the figures above that there was a steady increase in the use of electric power for industrial purposes in the district. In the year 1931 *i.e.*, the year of commissioning the plant at Sagar, the number of consumers of electricity for industrial purposes at Sagar proper was only two This number increased to 43 by the year 1940. By the year 1950 the number had gone up to 79 and in the year 1960, it has risen up to 230. The number of consumers of electricity for industrial uses at Bina, Khurai and Garhakota is 23, 11 and 7. respectively. Industrial power with high voltage is not being used in the district as there are no large scale industrial establishments. The following statement gives the details, of consumption of electricity for "commercial heat and small power", "commercial light and power" and "public lighting" for the years 1950-58.

(K. W. Hrs. in millions)

Year	Commercial Heat and Small Power	Commercial Light and Power	Public Lighting
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1950 ..	0.048	0.251	0.040
1951	0.126	0.309	0.052
1952	0.111	0.362	0.059
1953 ..	0.093	0 391	0.064
1954	0.087	0.416	0.078
1955	N.A	N.A.	N.A
1956 ..	0.129	0 517	0 083
1957 ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1958 ..	0 203	0 716	0.106

The capacity of the power station at Bina has since been increased by the addition of another 250 K.W.

INDUSTRIES AND MANUFACTURES

Mineral Industry.—The mineral resources of the district are neither important enough nor of sufficient quantity to justify large-scale mining and quarrying operations. Occurrence of iron ore of Bijawar series was reported at Hirapur, Amarmau, Thigora, Dalipur and Baraitha in Banda tahsil of Sagar district. From very early times Hirapur had occupied an important place among these centres where smelting of iron had been carried on by traditional methods. The number of iron smelting furnaces in the district from the year

1909 to 1933, given below conveys the story of the steady decline of this trade—

Year	Number of Furnaces
(1)	(2)
1909	13
1913	19
1926	4
1928	3
1933	1

At the time when smelting was being carried out in these furnaces, the quantity of iron produced was estimated to be of the order of about 1½ tons per furnace annually, and each furnace employed six or seven persons in smelting and working in the iron industry. At present there is little or no iron smelting in this area.

Mica.—Traces of pegmatites have been reported half a mile south of Bhatajhor, half a mile east of Bajay, in the river Dhasan and east of Baraitha. The pegmatites carry mica of no importance, the width of mica flakes ranging from half an inch to one inch and the individual book being half an inch thick. Attempts were made in the past to work mica from the pegmatites near Baraitha, Shahgarh and Bhatajhor, but these were not successful.[1]

Copper.—About half a mile south of Thigora in Banda tahsil malachite is reported to occur as needle-shaped crystals in a quartz vein. The attempts made in the past by digging pits up to 10 feet in the quartz vein, however, yielded no successful results.[2]

Limestone.—Substantial quantity of Bijawar limestone (Bhitri stage) exists in Banda tahsil in the vicinity of Hirapur, Thigora and Indora The colour of the stone ranges from greyish white, dark blue, greavish blue to cream. The limestone is cherty. The stone has been used as road metal Limestone, belonging to Lameta formation is also found as a continuous range of hills from Abdapur to Dhaboli. Its colour ranges from white to cream, and is used as a building-stone mainly for decoration purposes, as it is more easy to carve.[3] The infra-trappean Lameta limestone has been used

1. Annual Review on the Working of Indian Mines Act in Madhya Pradesh 1951, p. 4.
2. *Ibid.*
3. *Ibid.*

in the Circuit House at Sagar for seats of coppice of sandstone pillars as well as window sills and lintels. The sandstone of Rewah group (Vindhyan) near Sagar has been extensively used for building purposes as beams, ashlars, roofing slabs, flooring tiles, rubbles and for lattice windows of fine carving

Clay.—In Banda tahsil of the district white clay was found in pockets and beds along with the cherty and concretionary limestone of the intertrappean beds. The deposits were seen near Mau at the 13th mile along Sagar-Banda road, about six furlongs south-east of Richai, about a mile north-west of Sarai and in the Tinsimall hill. Thickness of the clay varied from a foot to five feet and the clay was used for white washing purposes. It was soft, plastic and did not contain much grit[1]

Building-Stone.—Of the numerous rock types in the Banda tahsil, the Upper Vindhyan Rewah sandstone furnishes excellent building-stone materials fit for any type of modern architecture. Among the Lower Vindhyan rocks, only the white, medium grained sandstone which is seen all along the south of Shahpur, overlapping the other Lower Vindhyan formation, is good for building purposes. This sandstone has been extensively used for building the entire Madantala Military Camp The glauconitic sandstone of Lower Vindhyan is largely used in the northern part of the Banda tahsil as roofing slabs in place of country tiles The dimensions of the slabs depend on the skill of the workers but slabs as large as six feet by three feet are available. Roofing slabs of this type are being quarried mostly from the nullah bed at Bilgawan, Dulchipur, and Madantala.

The black shales belonging to the Porcellanite stage are seen in the Bila river near Gomatpur and Bilgawan, were popularly known as slate stones Attempts to use this shale for making school slates did not succeed. Though the shale had black colour it had not been sufficiently metamorphosed to make it hard and compact as the normal Cuddapah slate

The Upper Rewah sandstone has been extensively worked all over the Banda tahsil as building stone. The various colours red, cream, chocolate, etc., are attractive and serve as the best building stone, and the sandstone is homogeneous in texture. Quarries of the stone are visible near Rurawan, Kauila, Patan, etc.[2]

Sulphur Spring.— In a deserted village Shirijhiri, (24°1′ 0″ : 79° 4′ 30″) about seven miles east of Banda, there was found a

1. *Ibid.*
2. *Ibid*, p. 5.

small well five feet by five feet and about seven feet deep in an alluvial covered area. by the side of a seasonal nullah. The interesting feature noticed here was that a continuous stream of bubbles of gas emerged from the centre of the well through the water and escaped into the air. The gas had the smell of hydrogen sulphide, polluting the whole atmosphere within a radius of 50 yards. Since this gas was observed to be welling up, continuously for a very long time, for about 30 to 40 years its origin is perhaps deep seated.[1]

In the district according to 1951 Census, population dependent on mining and quarrying of all kinds was given as 1,155. Classification of these persons was as follows.—

(1) Coal mining	2
(2) Iron ore mining	64
(3) Metal mining (except iron ore)	703
(4) Stone quarrying and sand pits	385
(5) Crude petroleum and natural gas	1

There are no large-scale industries in Sagar district. partly due to the lack of industrial raw materials in abundant quantity in the region, and partly because the soil and climatic conditions are not favourable for the cultivation of commercial crops like cotton or sugarcane on a large scale. But the district has several small-scale industries, prominent among them being (1) *Dal* Mills, (2) Oil mills, (3) Printing and lithographic works, and (4) Bidi making industries. The first and only factory to be registered under the Factories Act, 1911 in the district, appeared in the year 1922. This was Forage Press, classified under the Government and Local Fund Factories. During the subsequent years up to 1926 there was no mention of any factory registered under the Factories Act The number of factories registered under the Factories Act and the average number of workers daily employed in those factories from the year 1946 to 1958 is given below.—

Year	No. of Factories	Average No. of Workers
(1)	(2)	(3)
1946	8	642
1947	10	681
1948	7	676
1949	9	298
1950	33 (21 Bidi Factories)	825
1951	33 (21 Bidi Factories)	913
1952	28 (17 Bidi Factories)	942
1953	24 (15 Bidi Factories)	1080
1954	24 (15 Bidi Factoric	1124
1955	26 (16 Bidi Factories)	1146
1956	27 (17 Bidi Factories)	1678
1958	42 (32 Bidi Factories)	1880
1959	51 (37 Bidi Factories)	
1960	43 (35 Bidi Factories)	

1. *Ibid*, p. 6.

Prior to the year 1948 bidi factories used to be covered under the Unregulated Factories Act, 1937 and hence the number of factories before that year does not include the bidi factories. After 1948 bidi factories also came under the purview of the Factories Act. Thus the total figure for the number of factories for the year 1958 includes 32 bidi factories in the district with an average number of workers daily employed of the order of 1,415. It would thus appear that there were only 10 other factories besides bidi factories registered under the Factories Act, in the whole of the district employing about 465 workers daily on an average. The following statement gives the number of factories under different industries in the district as in the year 1958—

Name of the Industry	No. of Units	Average Nomber of Workers
(1)	(2)	(3)
1. *Dal* Milling	1	16
2. Oil Manufacturing	2	76
3. Printing and Lithography	3	160
4. Asbestos Product	1	100
5. Repair of Motor Vehicles.. . . .	1	50
6. Electric Supply	2	63
7. Bidi Making	32	1,415
	42	1,880

Oil Milling.—The first reference to an oil mill in the district appears in the Administration Report on the Working of the Factories Act, for the year ending 31st December, 1937. The average number of workers daily employed in that year was 41. In the year 1939. there were two factories mentioned in the relevant report, though the average number of workers employed is again given as 41. The Administration Report on the Factories Act, 1947 gives the number of oil mills in the district as three employing, on an average, 128 workers daily. In the years 1948 and 1949 again the number of oil mills is given as two employing on an average 107 and 88 workers, respectively.

Thereafter, even in the year 1959 the number of units under this industry is given as two employing on an average 76 workers daily. Therefore, taking the year 1937 as the beginning of the oil mill industry in the district, after a period of quarter of a century the position in respect of this industry has apparently remained unaltered. There has obviously been neither extensive, nor intensive

development of this industry, for the number of units as well as employment in the existing units remained almost static during the period 1937 to 1958. Both these oil mill units are located at Sagar proper. One of them, namely, the Malaiya Oil Mill, Sagar, established in the year 1940, had a total productive capital of Rs. 3,79,135 in the year 1957. The value of products during the same year was of the order of Rs. 19,65,103 The other oil mill. namely, the Mahendra Oil Mills, Sagar, was started in the year 1957, with a total productive capital of the order of Rs. 2,29,649. In the year 1960, the total invested capital had risen to Rs. 3,21,121. The average number of workers daily employed by the factory in the year 1957, was 30 while in 1960 the number was 35. From the year 1957 to 1960, the total value of production in the factory had risen from Rs. 5,84,857 to Rs. 12,65,916. Besides these registered factories there are 19 other oil mills in the district, not falling under the Factories Act, 1948. Fifteen of these are located at Sagar, one at Bina, one at Garhakota and two at Khurai The rates of wages paid to workers increased from Rs. 1.31 to Rs. 1.75 per day as against the minimum wages fixed for oil mill workers at Rs. 1 25 per day for male labour and Re. 1 per day for female labour. The wages of skilled workers like driver, oilmen, etc., in the factory range from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per day.

Bidi Industry.—By far the important industry in Sagar district is that of bidi making which provides employment to the largest number of workers. Bidi establishments in the district first appered in 1920. In the year 1958, there were about 32 registered bidi factories in the district, employing on an average 1,415 workers daily. But this number does not give an indication of the size of the working population engaged in this industry because a large part of bidi rolling is done in the villages on contract. The leavts, tobacco and thread are distributed to the bidi workers in the villages against a specified number of bidis to be manufactured by them. Thus about one lakh workers are found engaged in this occupation on a full time and part time basis. *Tendu* leaves which are used as wrappers of bidis are found in abundance in the forests of the neighbouring districts as well as in Sagar district. The leaves are either extracted by contractors who supply them to the bidi factories. or are collected by the manufacturers themselves who take on leases certain blocks of forests where *tendu* leaves grow. The quality of leaves depends chiefly on their condition at the time of harvest which is of limited duration ranging from a fortnight to three weeks (usually in May). In the year 1941 the price of leaves was about Rs. 4-8-0 per 1,000 bundles of fairly average sized leaves weighing about three maunds. The whole-sale price of good bidis ranged from Re. 0-14-0 to

Rs. 1-14-0 per 1,000, and the retail rate was 2 to 3 pice per *katta* of 25 bidis. The wages paid to workers for manufacturing 1,000 bidis in Sagar district during the same year were Re. 0-10-0. The retail selling price of bidis now is Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per thousand; while wholesale price is Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 4 per thousand

Tobacco is imported from Gujarat and Nipani, gunny bags from Bengal, card board, wrapping and other papers from different places outside the district The thread is obtained from Bombay and Ahmedabad Bidis manufactured in Sagar district are exported to Uttar Pradesh, Delhi and Punjab in large quantities. The production of bidis in the district is about five crores daily and about Rs two lakhs are distributed to the workers in the shape of wages, daily.

Labour in the bidi factories is generally recruited from the agricultural labour in the villages A number of workers from the villages come to the town for working in bidi factories during the slack season. Bidi rolling is a comparatively easy job, and wages paid are not much lower than those given for arduous agricultural operations like ploughing, harvesting, etc Because of this there is a tendency amongst agricultural labourers to prefer bidi making as a profession, which in turn, creates a scarcity of agricultural labour.

Printing and Lithography.—Three litho presses exist in the district according to the list of registered factories for the year 1958. The availability of good lithographic stone in the neighbourhood particularly in the valley of Sonar river at Hatta in Damoh district, is one of the reasons for the development of litho printing in the district The presses are—

Name	Year of Establishment
(1)	(2)
Patel Fine art Litho Press, Sagar	1947
The New Jawahar Vijay Fine Art Litho Works, Sagar ..	1946
Sunder Printing and Litho Works, Sagar.	1910

These three printing presses provide employment to about 160 workers on an average daily The Patel Fine Art Litho Press, which is the largest of the three, has a capital investment of Rs. 25 lakhs. Its turn over for the year 1959 was of the value of Rs 4 lakhs. Besides the litho printing presses, there are six other printing works in the district which provide employment to 302 workers in total.

***Dal* Milling.**—Production of gram and tur in a considerable quantity has facilitated the establishment of *dal* milling factory, *viz.*,

Malaiya *Dal* Mill, established in the year 1944. The factory provides average employment to about 16 workers daily.

Transport.—C. P. Transport Services have established a repairing worshop at Sagar, which provides employment to about 50 workers daily.

Saw Mills.—There are 50 saw mills in the district which do not fall under the purview of the Factories Act, 1948. They provide employment to 290 labourers daily and are located as under.—

1.	Sagar Town	43
2.	Bina	2
3.	Garhakota	4
4.	Deori	1

Cold Storage.—There are two cold storages namely, Paras Cold Storage Sagar, established in the year 1958 and Janata Cold Storage Sagar, established in the year 1960. These establishments manufacture ice during summer and provide cold storage facilities for preservation of potatoes and onions during summer. Among them these two establishments provide employment to about 40 workers.

There are also two ice candy manufacturing units at Khurai. *viz.*, Sikharchand Ice Candy Manufacturing Unit. established in 1956 and Sharma Ice Candy Manufacturing Unit established in 1961. Among them these two establishments provide employment to about 20 workers.

There is also one fountain pen and spare parts manufacturing unit, namely, R. C Products established in the year 1961. About seven workers are employed in this factory.

Besides these there are about 24 small repairing and engineering works which provide employment to about 50 workers. There are also three soap manufacturing units using power and one working without power, which among them provide employment to about 30 to 35 workers.

Cottage Industries.—One of the important cottage industries in the district is handloom weaving. The centres of handloom weaving in the district are Sagar, Garhakota. Deori and Rahatgarh. The number of handlooms registered under the Madhya Pradesh Handloom (Control) Order, 1951 in the district was 1,751 (including Damoh district). However, the number of handlooms registered under the Cotton Textile (Production by Handloom) Order of 1956 was

402. Up to the end of 1959 the number of registered handlooms in the district was 398, as detailed below.—

Sagar	119
Deori	46
Garhakota	210
Rahatgarh	23

According to the 1951 Census, 838 persons were engaged in cotton spinning and weaving. The weavers in the district are still using the old methods of weaving and prepare such products as khadi, *gamcha* and *razai* cloth, etc., which are sold locally. In order to give an impetus to this industry the Government is imparting training to the weavers in the use of improved weaving appliances etc., and are acquainting them with the latest varieties of handloom cloth in demand elsewhere. The Industries Department of the Government are running a weaving training centre at Garhakota. The first batch of six trainees has completed its training and the second batch of 10 is under training at present. The trainees are paid stipend at the rate of Re 1 per working day. Among other steps taken by the Government to improve the condition of handloom weavers in the district are to organize weavers co-operative societies at Sagar, Garhakota, Deori and Rahatgarh. The Government is giving interest free loans to these societies under the Handloom Development Scheme of the Government of India. The loans are recoverable in 10 annual instalments. Weaving appliances and other equipment are provided to these societies free of cost through Apex Society. Rebate facility is also given to the societies by the State Government to enable them to dispose of handloom products at competitive rates. The rebate is given to the consumers at the rate of 5 paise per rupee on retail sales and at the rate of 9 paise per rupee on whole-sale sales of Rs. 100 and above. The amount of rebate thus given to the consumers by the societies is later reimbursed by the Government. The help thus given to the societies is enabling the weavers to earn more and in getting acquainted with different aspects of the industry.

Oil Industry.—Besides the two oil mills registered under the Factories Act, 1948 which are located at Sagar extraction of oil on a cottage industry basis, *i.e.*, by *ghanis*, is also prevalent in the district. Oil *ghanis* exist in most of the villages in the district which practice indigenous method of oil extraction.

Two Telodyog Co-operative Societies have recently been organized in the district, which were registered in the year 1959. One of these societies, the Gramin Telodyog Co-operative Society Ltd., is

working at Nariaoli, and the other the Deori Telodyog Co-operative Ltd., at Deori. The membership of these societies is 24 and 13, respectively.

Leather Industry.—The tanning of leather and manufacture of shoes as a cottage industry has been in existence in the district from olden times. According to 1951 Census Report the number of persons engaged in this industry was 1,893. There are at present seven Charmkar Societies in the district, out of which two are at Sagar, namely, the Sagar Charmkar Industrial Co-operative Society Ltd., Sagar and the Ambedkar Charmkar Udyog Shoe-Makers Co-operative Society Ltd., Sagar. The former is a society of the tanners and the latter of the shoe-makers. The Department of Industries has given a loan of Rs. 5,000 to both these societies towards their working capital under the State Aid to Industries Act, 1958. Government has also started two training centres in the district to impart training in improved techniques of production. The Training-*cum*-Common Facility Centre at Sagar was started on the 2nd February, 1959 The first batch of nine trainees started training from February, 1960 The Government has sanctioned a sum of Rs. 1,500 to be given to five trainees to enable them to take up the trade independently. The Training-*cum*-Production Centre at Khurai was started with the first batch of 10 trainees from 2nd March, 1959. Efforts are being made to organize the ex-trainees under the co-operative society. Another sum of Rs. 2,400 was sanctioned to eight ex-trainees to help them start work independently.

Blacksmithy.—The number of Blacksmiths and Lohars making and mending agricultural implements and cooking utensils numbered about 1,027 in the year 1951 Two industrial co-operatives of Blacksmiths (a) The Vishwakarma Lohkar Industrial Co-operative Society, Ltd., and (2) The Amarmau Lohkar Sahkari Audyogic Samiti, Amarmau, are working in the district. The Industries Department has advanced a loan of Rs. 8,375 towards the working capital and Rs. 1,250 as share capital to the society at Sagar. This society also gets a regular quota of raw materials from the Collector Sagar. The Society manufactures household utensils

Brass and Copper Works.—Brass and copper industry is located at Sagar, Deori, Khurai, Garhakota and Rehli The products of the industry are water storage vessels, drinking pots and cooking pots. A co-operative society of the brass workers has been organized and registered at Deori in the year 1957, under the name, the Deori Tamrakar Industrial Co-operative Association, Deori, and has a membership of 80 persons. The Association has received a loan of

Rs. 10,000 towards its working capital and Rs. 1,250 as share capital. The manufactures of the industry are household utensils for cooking and other purposes. There were 301 persons engaged in copper-brass and bell metal work in the district according to the Census of 1951.

Carpentry and Wood Works.—The carpenters in the villages are usually engaged in the manufacture and repair of wooden agricultural implements. In the urban areas, especially at Sagar, they are usually engaged in the manufacture of household furniture. Schemes for giving training in carpentry and wood works have been started in the Community Block areas in the district. According to 1951 Census there were 2,141 persons employed in the trade as carpenters, joiners and turners.

Bamboo Work.—There were as many as 2,894 persons engaged in the basket making according to 1951 Census. Baskets of various types, fans, matting and screens or *chicks*, etc., are prepared by the bamboo workers. Brooms for the use of sweepers and for use in houses are also prepared.

Pottery and Brick Making.—Every village has a Potter's or Kumhar's cottage establishment. He prepares earthen pots for storing water and for cooking purposes. The pottery of Shahgarh in the district is reputed for its strength and durability owing to the peculiar quality of the clay. The Industries Department has started a training centre at Shahgarh where persons interested in the manufacture of earthen ware are being trained under the guidance of trained instructor. The trainees are given stipend at the rate of Rs. 20 per month. Two batches of 10 trainees each have already completed their training at the centre.

Kumhars also manufacture bricks and tiles and prepare clay figures and toys which are generally in demand on festive occasions. In the year 1951, the potters and brick layers numbered 1,491 and 600, respectively.

Dyeing.—Because of the import of mill made dyed yarn this industry in the district has considerably declined in its importance. However, a few dyers or Rangrezes are still found in Sagar and in some of the villages. To revive this industry a Dyers' Co-operative Society has been organized at Jaisinghnagar in the district with 14 members. In the 1951 Census 106 persons were enumerated as occupied in this industry.

Gold and Silver Work.—Sonars or workers in precious metals like gold and silver are mostly residing in Sagar proper. There are however, a few Sonars in Khurai and Etawa, and in most of the larger villages one or two households of Sonars are to be found. According to 1951 Census the number of workers in precious metals and jewellery was 707.

There is one wax candles manufacturing establishment situated at a distance of one mile from Sagar Chhawni. In this establishment all processes from the cleaning of wax to the manufacture of candles 4½" to 1½' in length are performed. The workers in the establishment are all Christian Roman Catholics.

As mentioned earlier there is also one soap manufacturing unit working without power. Besides, there is one plastic buttons and comb manufacturing unit at Sagar.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS

The industrial arts and crafts like ornamental pottery making, copper, silver and gold embroidery work, ornamental brass and bell metal articles manufacturing, stone, wooden and clay toys manufacturing, ornamental shoes manufacturing, ornamental nutcrackers manufacturing, etc., were carried on in the district.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL

The industrial potential of a particular region depends upon the availability of the natural resources. In this respect the situation in this district is not particularly favourable. The district does not possess important minerals like iron, coal, etc. Stray iron deposits are not amenable to commercial or industrial exploitation. There are no coal deposits in the district, nor is the soil and climatic condition of the district suitable for production of commercial crops like cotton, sugarcane, jute, etc., on a large-scale. These factors may account for the comparatively slow industrial progress of the district. There has, however, been marked increase in the number of bidi manufacturing units from the beginning of the present century to the present day. It is, however, possible that the use of electricity as a source of power might facilitate the starting of some new industries based on the forest resources of the district. Availability of limestone of suitable quality might make the establishment of cement industry possible in the district. The Five Year Plan of the State Government envisages construction of an industrial

Estate at Sagar in the year 1961-62. By the end of January, 1961, a sum of Rs. 0.65 lakhs has been spent over construction of the Estate against the Plan provision of Rs 1.00 lakh.

LABOUR AND EMPLOYERS' ORGANIZATION

The growth of the industrial activity in the district though slow has given rise to trade unionism in practically all the industries in the district. The following trade unions have been registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926 in the district.—

(1) The Timber and Charcoal Association, Station Road, Sagar Bazar, Sagar

(2) Sagar Gomasta Mandal, Tilak Ganj, Sagar.

(3) Sagar Zila Bidi Mazdoor Sangh, Mohan Nagar, Sagar.

(4) Rashtriya Ganj Dalal Sangh, Ramnagar Para, Sagar.

(5) Rashtriya Motor Mazdoor Sangh, Sagar.

(6) Sagar Litho and Printing Press, Karmchari Union Parkota, Sagar

(7) Bijli Karmchari Sangh, Parkota, Sagar.

(8) Janpad Karmchari Sangh, House No. 207, Sagar.

(9) Sagar Vishwa Vidhyalaya Chaturth Varg Karmachari Sangh, Katra Bazar, Sagar.

Out of these Unions, the Sagar Gomasta Mandal is affiliated to the Hind Mazdoor Sabha and the Sagar Zila Bidi Mazdoor Sangh is affiliated to the Indian National Trade Union Congress.

The above list of trade unions practically covers all the industries of the district except *dal* milling and oil milling. The number of registered factories under these industries is only one *dal* mill and two oil mills, which employ on an average daily 16 and 76 workers, respectively. The smallness of the number of workers accounts for the absence of trade union activities in these industries. Only the Sagar Litho and Printing Press Karmachari Union and the Bijli Karmachari Sangh among the nine registered unions, have been recognised under the C. P. & Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947.

There is only one organization of the employers in the district namely, Tobacco and Bidi Merchants' Association, Sagar.

The activities of the different trade unions are confined mainly to the protection of wages and working conditions of the workers in their respective industries. These workers' organizations may be said to be still in a formative stage, and little or no welfare activities for the workers, like provision of recreation facilities, education, medical facilities, etc., are being undertaken by them.

The employers' organization in bidi industry is being run for the commercial and trade interests of the employers in the industry against any inroads on the part of the Government or the workers. As such there are no welfare activities for the workers carried on by the Tobacco and Bidi Merchants' Association, Sagar.

WELFARE OF INDUSTRIAL LABOUR

Bidi industry is the only important industry in Sagar district which employs a large number of workers The working force in this industry is quite mobile in as much as many of the workers are in the nature of an influx from agriculture who take up bidi making during the slack seasons in agriculture to supplement their incomes. Moreover, to circumvent the provisions and the rules under the Factories Act, and other labour legislations, there is a practice amongst the employers to get the work done on a contract basis. The practice is to supply the bidi workers with a fixed quantity of raw materials, such as *tendu* leaves, tobacco and thread, and against this material get the equivalent number of bidis manufactured by them. The material is handed over to the workers at their home through the contractors who also collect the rolled bidis from the workers. These conditions in the bidi industry are not amenable to organized welfare activities for workers. Wherever bidi making is practised in regular factories all the welfare facilities guaranteed by the Factory and Labour legislations are provided. In other industries in the district like printing and litho presses, transport, electricity generation, and distribution, etc., the welfare facilities guaranteed under the statute are provided.

Government have already fixed the minimum wages in the district for Scheduled Industries like oil manufacturing, bidi manufacturing, printing presses, etc. The minimum wages in bidi industry in the district are Rs 1.31 paise per 1,000 bidis at Sagar proper and Rs. 1.25 paise per 1,000 bidis at all other municipal towns in Sagar district and places within 10 miles radius of Sagar. For packing centres (Stock factories) in the district the minimum wages are Rs. 1.19 paise per 1,000, bidis

In oil mills the minimum wages for male workers are Rs. 1.75 paise and Re. 1 per day for female workers

The minimum wages in printing presses for Sagar (A Zone) are Rs. 65 per month for different categories of skilled workers, like Lino Type Operator, Camera Operator, etc. The minimum wages in *dal* manufacturing industry in the district are Re. 1 per day for adult male and 0.75 paise per day for an adult female worker.

The provisions regarding sickness insurance and medical facilities provided under the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 have not yet been made applicable to the industries in the district.

The Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952 and the scheme framed thereunder are applicable to the establishment in the Scheduled Industries, employing 50 or more persons after the expiry of three years from the date of the commissioning of the factories or employing 20 or more employees, having completed first five years of their set up. The rate of employers' contribution payable under the scheme is 6¼ per cent of the basic wages, dearness allowance and cash value of food concessions, etc. Employees' contribution is equal to that of the employer. The employees who have concluded one year's continuous service or 240 days actual work in a period of 12 months are eligible for membership of the statutary fund. Some of the Scheduled Industries in the district are (1) Edible oils and fats, (2) Electricity generation and transmission, (3) Printing, (4) Motor Transport, and (5) Automobile repairing and servicing. The benefits under the Employees' Provident Fund Scheme in the district are given by the Electricity Supply Co., Sagar, and Patel Fine Arts and Litho works, Sagar. The number of beneficiaries under the Provident Fund Scheme are about 164 Besides, the Sagar Electric Supply Co, provides free electricity to its workers at the rate of one unit on every Rs 5 of the basic pay Company also pays bonus equal to 10 per cent of the total anuual emoluments

The number of factories covered under the Maternity Benefits Act, 1958 in the district was 41 in the year 1958, out of which 33 were bidi factories. In the year 1959 the number was 48, out of which 37 were bidi factories. The women workers employed in these factories are entitled to maternity benefits which are given in cash. But during both these years, i.e., 1958 and 1959 no such benefits were given.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

Indigenous banking in the rural areas in Sagar district was restricted to the traditional agencies consisting of a few money-lending families of Banias and the malguzars who were the perennial source of the agriculturist's advances—both in cash and kind—as well as the cause of his chronic indebtedness. The Settlement Report of 1911—16 observes that "the habit of borrowing is deeply ingrained in the people and the inability to pay one's debts carries with it no moral stigma." The habit perhaps became deep-seated owing to the succession of years of famines that afflicted the district and the absence of a stigma was apparently because a malady so widespread could not carry with it any obloquy of individual improvidence. The Report further added that it was as much the customs of the tenants to borrow seed for sowing as it was the recognised privilege of the malguzar to lend it. The grain debts were nearly always expected to be repaid in kind, but valued at the wholesale rate which was then current.

Banking in the modern sense of the term did not appear in the district till quite recent times, but there were a few well-known families who transacted money-lending business and thereby acquired large estates. For instance, the Settlement Report of 1911—16 refers to five big families of money-lenders who held amongst them 189 villages, equivalent to 131 whole mahals. Even the smaller malguzars who shared the rest of the tahsil, supplemented the profits of agriculture with a grain and money-lending business. Concerning the rates of interest charged on these loans, the Saugor District Gazetteer (Russell) of 1906 says : "The rates of interest on cash loans advanced by bankers are 6 to 9 per cent on pledge of jewels, 12 per cent on mortgage of land or loans to substantial proprietors and 18 to 24 per cent on loans to small proprietors and tenants. Frequently in the case of cash loans one anna in the rupee is deducted by the lender in advance of giving the loan and this transaction is written in the deed. As a rule bonds or deeds are written for the loans, but they are dispensed with if the borrower deposits a pledge in the shape of jewels If the borrower is a substantial and reliable man loans are also made without a document and an attested entry in the lender's account-books is considered sufficient."[1]

1 Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p. 121

According to the Settlement Report of 1911—16, the total indebtedness of the district was valued at Rs. 34 5 lakhs in cash and 41,000 *manis* (one *mani* = five *maunds*) in grain. Referring to the rate of interest the Report of 1911—16 observed : "Rates of interest vary with the security offered. Land, when transferable, is the best security. Character is next considered, and the probability of easy recovery. Jwellery, I think, is seldom offered as security, and when accepted, scarcely affects the rate of interest."[1] It was then considered that the district suffered more from lack of credit and lack of capital than from indebtedness.

GENERAL CREDIT FACILITIES

To relieve the peasants from the clutches of the money-lenders and malguzars, loans were granted to the agriculturists under the Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 and the Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884. "Between 1891 and 1895 large advances were made under the latter Act, the total amounting to Rs. 4 lakhs of which Rs. 3½ lakhs were borrowed in 1894-95. From 1896 to 1901 a further sum of nearly Rs. 3 lakhs was given out, and Rs. 96,000 more between 1901 and 1903, the total advances of agricultural loans since 1871 thus amounting to Rs. 8.13 lakhs."[2] The Settlement Report of 1911—16 classified the agricultural families of Sagar district into six categories on the basis of their credit and indebtedness:

"A. Well-to-do malguzars and money-lenders, and big farmers who are really of malguzari status, though actually holding no proprietary right.

B. Substantial cultivators of not less than two ploughs, who have not overdrawn fair agricultural credit, and well-to-do graziers.

C—(a) Small cultivators of one plough, not indebted beyond their means;

(b) A few bigger men who have strained their credit too far to be classed B, but are not seriously embarrassed.

D.I—Tenants who are crippled by debt or lack of credit.

D.II—The hopelessly indebted.

E.—Labouring castes, still partly dependent on causal labour."[3]

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1. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911—1916, p. 37.
2. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p. 120.
3. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911—1916, pp. 34-35.

The position of indebtedness of these six categories of families as it stood then, was as follows : —

Category	Number indebted	Total Cash (Rs.)	Total Debt Grain (*Manis*)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
A	340	1,73,566	311
B	6,099	9,17,244	9,902
C	14,058	15,17,384	20,905
D I	4,542	7,25,985	9,031
D II	126	59,295	254
E	933	50,648	548
Total ..	26,098	34,44,122	40,951

The Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee (1929-30) carried out a survey of Sagar district and examined the condition of indebtedness and credit facilities in the different tahsils in the district. Adverting to the conditions in Surkhi village of Sagar tahsil the Report observes: "The malguzar is the principal source of finance in the village We received many bitter complaints with regard to his methods of doing grain and money-lending business . Quite a number of the tenants of this village are now hopelessly indebted, and the malguzar, if he desired, might obtain possession of their absolute occupancy land in execution of decrees for debt. As a matter of fact, however, he apparently prefers to keep them in debt allowing them just enough to live on and absorbing the rest of their profits from agriculture from year to year The common rate of interest is Rs 2 per month, advances being usually for the season of five or six months. In case of default in prompt repayment, the interest is raised to Rs. 3 per month For loans of seed grain, the rate of interest charged is usually 25 per cent for the period between seed time and harvest, *i e*, for about five months the actual rate of interest being over 50 per cent per annum. This is the rate charged from old clients. A new borrower is charged double this amount."[1] The position described in this tahsil was not very different from what obtained in the rest of the district. It was, therefore, no wonder that the large majority of the

1 Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report, 1929-30, Vol. II, p. 239

peasantry in the district found itself almost perpetually in a state of hopeless indebtedness. This was further brought out by the picture presented in another village in Rehli tahsil of the district. The village Maharajpur is an important village having a population at that time, of about 1,900 persons. The Report says: "As regards the question of debts, there are 183 agriculturists in all, including the nine share-holders. The total debt of all kinds comes to Rs 21,064 in cash and grain worth Rs. 3,252" .... Out of this "the debt due from the tenantry comes to Rs. 16,262 in cash and Rs. 3,253 in grain, owed by 118 tenants out of a total of 174 tenants."[1]

In spite of the progressive enlargement of credit facilities through various Government agencies the fact remained that the cultivators continued to depend for the major portion of their borrowings on the professional money lenders. The All-India Rural Credit Survey, 1951, conducted by the Reserve Bank of India covered the Sagar district, and the evidence adduced by the Survey confirms the fact that the cultivators as well as the non-cultivators depended largely on sources other than the Government for their advances. The Table below analyses the position in regard to the outstanding debt and the sources to which it is owed and the borrowings effected during the year from the different sources by both cultivators and non-cultivators:

The Average Debt and Borrowing Classified According to Credit Agencies

(Amount in Rs.)

Name of credit Agency	Per cultivating family		Per non-cultivating family	
	Average Debt	Average Borrowings	Average Debt	Average Borrwings
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Total Deb/Borrowing ..	568	514	80	54
Government	207 (36.4)	119 (23 2)	12 (15 3)	4 (6.8)
Cooperative and Commercial Banks ..	8 (1 4)	7 (1.3)	.. (—)	.. (—)
Relatives . ..	35 (6.3)	34 (6 7)	5 (6.3)	4 (7.6)
Agriculturist Money lenders	12 (2 0)	7 (1.3)	.. (0.3)	.. (0 9)
Professional Money lenders . ..	302 (53 2)	339 (65.9)	61 (76.8)	45 (83.0)
Others	4 (0.7)	8 (1.6)	1 (1.3)	1 (1.5)

Source.—All-India Rural Credit Survey, 1957, Vol. I, Part 2, pp 12, 21, 33 and 41.

Note.—Figures in brackets denote percentage to total debt.

1. *Ibid*, p. 246

It is clear that 65.9 per cent of the average borrowings per cultivating families was from professional money-lenders while only 23.2 per cent was taken from Government. More than 50 per cent of the outstanding debts of the cultivating families also were owed to the professional money-lenders The picture among the non-cultivating families is even more striking. As much as 83 per cent of the average borrowings of the non-cultivating families were from professional money-lenders, to whom they also owed 76.8 per cent of their debts.

The All-India Rural Credit Survey further analysed the borrowings by different categories of families according to the purpose for which the loan was borrowed. This analysis revealed that the largest share of the borrowings was intended for capital and current expenditure on farm. For the purpose of this analysis the cultivators were divided broadly into four categories. The result of the analysis is depicted in the Table below:

Average Amount Borrowed Per Family Classified According To Purpose—Sagar District

Borrower	Capital expenditure on farm	Current expenditure on farm	Non-farm business expenditure	Family expenditure	Other expenditure
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Big Cultivators ..	255	147	165	300	163
Large Cultivators	269	134	229	222	60
Medium Cultivators	89	73	83	61	8
Small Cultivators ..	43	22	168	86	2
Cultivators ..	131	76	160	123	23
Non-Cultivators ..	4	6	3	45	..
All Families ..	95	55	116	101	17

Source.—All-India Rural Credit Survey Report, 1956, Vol. III, p. 304.

The Report of the All-India Rural Credit Survey has analysed the debt position of the different categories of families in Sagar dis-

trict in the light of the sources to which the debt is owed by them. Adopting the same classification of cultivators under the four categories mentioned earlier the position is shown, in the Table below:—

Average Debt per Family Classified According to Credit Agency

Borrower	Government	Co-operative and Commercial Banks	Relatives	Agriculturist money-lenders	Professional (private) money-lenders
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Big Cultivators	672	4	70	..	789
Larger Cultivators	432	13	87	20	552
Medium Cultivators	142	10	15	13	150
Small Cultivators ..	47	..	4	2	207
Cultivators ..	207	8	35	12	302
Non-Cultivators .	12	..	5	..	61
All Families ..	152	6	27	8	234

Source.—All India Rural Credit Survey Report, 1956, Vol. III, p. 323.

The Table reveals that while the first three categories of cultivators are indebted more or less equally between Government sources and the professional money-lenders, the small cultivators lean heavily on the professional money-leaders. Perhaps the procedural difficulties involved in obtaining loans from Government sources act as a deterant to the small cultivators in taking advantage of them. The Table also shows that the professional money-lender continues to play a dominant role in the provision of rural credit in the district, partly because the debt owed to him is accumulated by the families over a considerable period of time

The Survey Report has worked out the percentage of the borrowings by all families utilised for different purposes, which shows that the capital expenditure on farms and current expenditure on farms take up 21.8 per cent and 14.5 per cent, respectively of the borrowings, while non farms business expenditure accounts for 30.1 per cent. Borrowings for family expenditure accounts for 26.3 per cent and other miscellaneous expenditure accounts for 4.3 per cent

A study of the growth of debt during 1951-52 carried out by the Survey revealed that the average growth of debt per family of cultivators was Rs. 314 and that of non-cultivators was Rs. 51. Taking all families combined the average growth of debt per family was

Rs. 239. This by no means represents a happy state of affairs in the rural economy of the district.

Of the two measures which were calculated to afford relief to the indebted, the Central Provinces and Berar Money Lenders Act, enacted in 1934, not only ensured the proper registration of money-lenders and regular maintenance of accounts but also saved the debtors from undue harassment. The Table below gives the number of money-lenders in Sagar district from 1950 to 1960 :—

Number of Money-Lenders

Year	Sagar	Rehli	Khurai	Banda	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1950	210	204	81	22	517
1951	247	221	147	..	615
1952	309	257	169	66	801
1953	349	281	187	102	919
1954	360	281	226	106	973
1955	356	262	259	113	990
1956	344	253	276	104	977
1957	360	247	265	115	987
1958	353	240	268	106	967
1959	363	255	269	114	1001
1960	..	175	280	106	561

Source:— District Registrar, Sagar.

The progressive deterioration in the condition of the tenantry in Sagar district from about 1927-28 onwards caused by successive crop failures, capped by the world-wide economic depression in the early 'thirties led to the setting up of the first Debt Conciliation Board under the Debt Conciliation Act, 1933, in Sagar district, in Khurai tahsil. It was established in July 1933. The Board made an appreciable headway in the conciliation work during the year and a half that it conducted its operations. Similar Boards were set up in Sagar and Banda tahsils in February, 1935 and in Rehli tahsil in March 1936.

Another measure that was intended to relieve the hardship of the indebted agriculturists was the Central Provinces and Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act which was passed in 1939. and the Rules under the Act framed in the following year. It was possible, under this Act, for any agriculturist who is a debtor, and where debts do not exceed 25 thousand rupees, to seek relief in the determination of his debt by filing an application before the Debt Relief Court. After the enactment of these measures, the position of the indebted cultivator in the district was considerably improved.

Urban Indebtedness.—No scientific survey of the urban indebtedness has been conducted in Sagar district, and it is, therefore, not possible to attempt any precise analysis. The trends revealed, however, in the study of the general state of indebtedness in the district made by the Reserve Bank of India, are presumably as valid in urban areas as in rural. The *sahukar* is the indigenous banker who not only advances loans but also deals in hundies. Most of the well known banking families of the district operated in urban areas as well, and financed the trader as they did the cultivator.

Another familiar figure in the urban money-lending trade was the Afghan Kistwalla, or Rohilla who was as ready with his small advances especially to the low paid urban wage earner, as he was remorseless in his methods of extracting the interest. Their rate of interest was anything between 75 and 360 per cent, which explained why they were not so much interested in recovering the loan amount as in keeping the interest going. The extortions of these Pathan money lenders have, however, almost disappeared as a result of effective measures of regulation introduced to curb their activities.

Joint Stock Banks

There are four joint stock banks functioning in Sagar district.—

(1) The Central Bank of India Ltd., Sagar.

(2) The State Bank of India Ltd., Sagar.

(3) The Punjab National Bank of India Ltd., Sagar.

(4) The State Bank of India Ltd., Khurai.

The Central Bank of India.—The first joint stock bank to come into existence in the district was a branch of the Central Bank of India which was established on 10th March 1945. There is only one office of the Bank in the district, and it is situated at Sagar. The Bank accepts current deposits at quarter per cent per annum, home savings safe at two per cent and short and fixed term deposits at three to five per cent per annum depending upon the period and time in terms of All India Inter Bank Agreement. The bank charges interest on advances ranging from six and a half to eight per cent.

The State Bank of India.—The State Bank of India established its first branch in this district on 14th February 1949. A second branch of the State Bank of India was opened at Khurai on 9th September 1958. Till then there was only a pay office at this place.

The Punjab National Bank.—The third bank to be established in Sagar district was the branch of the Punjab National Bank, at Sagar, which was opened on 12th March 1951. The Bank's interest rate on deposits ranges from two and a half to five per cent per annum, while it charged interest on advances from six to nine per cent.

Advances and Volume of Business—Consolidated amount of loans advanced by all joint stock banks in the district against agricultural and non-agricultural products was Rs. 48,99,000 in the year 1960. In the same year their total volume of business stood at Rs. 14,81,80,000.

Warehousing Corporation.—In Madhya Pradesh a beginning in the organisation of proper warehousing facilities to help agricultural credit was made in 1958 with the formation of the Madhya Pradesh State Warehousing Corporation in February 1958, under the Agricultural Produce (Development and Warehousing) Corporation Act of 1956. Five Directors were nominated by the State Government, and five by the Central Warehousing Corporation and with the appointment of a full-time Managing Director in September 1958, the scheme was steadily put into effect in Madhya Pradesh. In Sagar district there are two warehouses at present, the first was set-up at Sagar in 1960 and the second at Khurai in 1961.

Agriculturists who deposit their produce at these warehouses are required to pay as charges a small amount and in return they get a 'Warehouse receipt'. Against the security of this receipt they are able to obtain an advance to the extent of 60 to 75 per cent of the total value of the produce, from the State Bank or any other Scheduled Bank in the district The interest payable on such advances range from five and a half to seven per cent per annum. The stock position of the Sagar warehouse upto 31st March 1961 was about 1867 maunds of agricultural produce.

Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks

The cooperative movement may be said to have come to stay in the Sagar District from 19th November 1911 when the Sagar Co-operative Central Bank came into existence and was subsequently registered under the Cooperative Societies Act II of 1912. The area of operation of the Bank extended throughout the four tahsils of the Sagar district, namely Sagar, Rehli, Banda and Khurai. It started its working with a modest working capital of Rs. 15,950 and its development and expansion was gradual. It was not till 1930 that it assumed some proportions in its working, when there were

91 primary credit societies affiliated to the Bank which financed them to the extent of Rs 2,10,134 for being advanced to their 1,172 members for agricultural purposes.

The cooperative movement faced a serious crisis in 1938-39 on account of a fall in prices of grains and the funds of the Bank were locked up in the loans to the societies and their members. There were heavy withdrawals by the depositors who got into a panic as a result of a serious crisis in the Berar and other banks in the C.P. & Berar (Old Madhya Pradesh). The Sagar Cooperative Central Bank, however, managed to survive the crisis, though it considerably affected its smooth progress for some time. Many of the member societies became dormant, and some of the societies had to be liquidated, and their debts written off out of their reserve funds and a part of the reserve fund of the Bank. The cooperative movement picked up again by the year 1942, with the amendment to the Tenancy Act, which helped the Bank and the affiliated societies to revive their working and strengthen their financial structure. This was further helped by the economic consequences of the Second World War, and the Cooperative Central Bank at Sagar and the societies affiliated to it made some progress.

In the Second Five Year Plan, the cooperative movement made considerable headway in Sagar district. The schemes which were implemented from 1957-58 onwards aimed at the following:—

(i) bringing the rural families into the cooperative fold to the largest extent;

(ii) adequate financing to raise production of food-grains and other commodities;

(iii) better implements and improved methods to increase production of food-grains and other commodities;

(iv) organising cooperative institutions to increase the production of food-grains and other commodities;

(v) organising cooperative marketing societies to secure fair prices to the cultivators and to make available food-grains to the consumers at reasonable prices, avoiding the middlemen's profit as far as possible.

Thus, the cooperative movement in the district which was more than half a century old got a new impetus from 1957-58. For this purpose the scope of the existing cooperative organizations was enlarged and coordinated, consisting of the Central financing agency (Central Bank), large-sized societies, primary credit societies, village

(service) societies, better farming societies, marketing societies and small-scale industrial societies. The Sagar Cooperative Central and Land Mortgage Bank is the central financing agency for the whole of the district. It is the pivot of all the schemes in the district for agricultural financing for increased production of food-grains and other commodities. It has five branches in the district at Bina, Khurai, Banda, Deori and Rehli. The Bank has made rapid progress during the course of the last three years as is revealed by the following figures showing its working: —

	Particulars	1956-57	1957-58	1959-60
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	Paid-up Share Capital ..	2,23,415	2,69,844	4,07,175
2.	Reserve Fund	67,944	70,455	94,716
3.	Deposits	5,53,473	8,34,211	9,02,718
4.	Loans	10,53,417	12,30,374	22,79,164
5.	Working Capital	1,21,97,051	24,88,818	38,15,396
6.	Loans to Societies	9,46,194	17,69,822	21,19,409
7.	Loans to individual agriculturists	3,67,959	78,981	53,142
8.	Profit	17,472	12,303	41,507
9.	Number of societies affiliated to the Bank.	363	358	366
10.	Number of members of Societies	9,151	12,576	15,118

It is an index of the growing public confidence in the Bank that the deposits have increased from Rs. 5,53,473 to Rs. 9,02,718. The Bank obtains loans from the Reserve Bank of India to finance the agricultural societies, and loans advanced to societies have reached a figure which is more than double what it was in the year 1957-58. The State Government have contributed towards the share capital of the Bank an amount of Rs. 75,000 and granted staff subsidy of Rs. 14,200 during the year 1958-59 and another subsidy of Rs. 9,200 during the year 1959-60. Amongst the 381 societies affiliated to the Bank, 10 are large sized societies, 10 better farming societies, 80 service cooperative societies, four marketing societies and one agricultural association.

The Sagar Cooperative Central and Land Mortgage Bank Ltd., established in 1911, is the only Cooperative Central Bank in the

district. It is the nerve-centre of co operative movement in the district. It provides credit facilities to the cultivators and non-agriculturists through their primary credit societies which are affiliated to it The progress in number of these societies from the year 1911 up-to-date (in decennials upto 1941, and quinquennials upto 1960-61) is tabulated below—

Year	No. of agricultural credit Societies	No. of non-agricultural credit sociaties mainly of Harijans
(1)	(2)	(3)
1911-12	26	..
1921-22	98	..
1931-32	54	..
1941-42	63	..
1946-47	80	..
1951-52	82	..
1955-56	294	29
1960-61	341	29

The cooperative movement in the district progressed gradually in pre Independence period with occasional set backs, but after the Independence of the country the movement got a stronger impetus, particularly in the Plan periods.

The Sagar Cooperative Central and Land Mortgage Bank advances loans to its affiliated primary credit societies on the security of assignment of mortgages and declaration deeds of land that the societies secured from their members who take loans from them. The societies finance their members out of the Central Bank loan mainly for raising crops and also for making petty improvements on land The loan for raising crops is short-term loan repayable at the time of the harvest within one year. The loan for the improvement of land and purchase of bullocks is the medium term loan repayable in two annual instalments. The medium-term loan is limited to the extent of available funds with the Central Bank which finances these Societies. In financing their members the societies take into consideration the value of their lands which they

offer for mortgage. The rate of financing by the societies to their members at present is Rs. 35 per acre in this district.

The societies used to obtain loans from the Central Bank at the rate of nine per cent and made advances to their members at the rate of 11 to 12 per cent. In accordance with the recent decisions of the Cooperative Central Bank in the State, the Sagar Central Bank advances loans to the affiliated societies at six per cent and societies to their members at nine per cent per annum. In view of the fact that the money market is very tight and other sources of credit are not available easily, the societies are becoming popular in the rural areas of district.

Besides the agriculturists who have been afforded credit facilities through their credit societies the non-agriculturists also get the benefit of credit facilities through their societies mainly in the urban areas. They were organised from the year 1939. At present there are 29 such societies.

GENERAL AND LIFE INSURANCE.

Life Insurance business in Sagar district, as in the rest of the country, is carried on by Life Insurance Corporation of India, while the General Insurance is carried on mainly by the British India General Insurance Co., Ltd.

Life Insurance.--Until the nationalisation of the Life Insurance on 1st September, 1956 more than a dozen companies used to operate in the district through salaried Inspectors and Agents. A few companies followed the practice of having special Agents or Chief Agents, but none had a regular branch in the district. The business was controlled by an office either at Nagpur, Jabalpur or Bombay.

There is no statistical information available concerning the amount of the business transacted by the different companies, but it could be concluded that the major portion of the business was in the urban areas and there was little or no attempt made to approach the rural population.

After this industry had been nationalised, a branch office of the Life Insurance Corporation was established at Sagar, with a staff of about 20 persons in the office and about half the number in the field. The field officers are specially assigned to look after one

tahsil or a portion of a tahsil each so as to enable them to concentrate their work in the rural areas. Now, there is a Branch Manager at Sagar, with four field officers for this district only, three of them having one tahsil each to organise and develop Life Insurance business. There are also a number of active agents assigned to each tahsil for maintaining contacts with the rural population and rendering service to the policy-holders.

The branch office at the district level receives proposals, attends to all correspondence, collects premiums for both fresh policies and renewals, issues stamped receipts, settles commission accounts and makes all payments to them and the medical examiners. Hitherto all these functions were performed by an Head Office of the Company situated at Nagpur, Jabalpur or Bombay.

The organisational set-up through field officers and agents helps to carry the message of Life Insurance to the entire district. In order to popularise Life Insurance in rural areas a 'Rural Area Pilot Insurance Scheme' is under implementation in cooperation and co-ordination with the Block Development Offices wherever possible.

The number of Life Insurance policies issued in Sagar district in 1957 was 884, while in 1958 it rose to 1082 The tahsil-wise figures of business completed in the two years are given below:—

Name of tahsil	1957	1958
	(in rupees)	
(1)	(2)	(3)
Sagar	24,96,000	35,88,750
Khurai	3,64,250	[illegible],29,500
Rehli	1,79,500	3,52,500
Banda	99,500	99,500
Total ..	31,39,250	42,70,250

The object of the Rural Area Pilot Insurance Scheme is to achieve in minimum of one policy per family in rural areas. Some spade work in this direction has been done in the Rahatgarh Development Block.

General Insurance.—The General Insurance business in Sagar district has been largely in the hands of the British India General Insurance Co., which set-up a representative in the district, and

later, in 1948, opened a District Organizer's Office. The progress in General Insurance since then prompted this firm to open a branch office in the year 1959, the first office of its kind to be established at Sagar.

The business transacted by the British India General Insurance Co., includes coverage of risks of fire, accident, marine, workmen's compensation, transit, burglary, personal accidents, etc. The annual risk covered by the British India General Insurance Co., is reported to be roughly about Rs. one crore.

The claims paid to private parties and individuals by the Company were reported to be about Rs. 50 to 60 thousand a year.

The risk under-writing premium collected in the past three years was as under:

Year	Rs.
1959	1,10,000.
1960	1,50,000.
1961	2,00,000.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT.

Assistance for the industrial development of the State is provided either by the Government direct or through the Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation.

Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation.—In former Madhya Bharat, a Financial Corporation was established under the State Financial Corporation Act, 1951. After the formation of the new State of Madhya Pradesh on 1st November, 1956, the Government of Madhya Pradesh in exercise of the powers conferred on them by sub-section (1) of section three of the State Financial Corporation Act. 1951 (LXIII of 1951) notified the change of the Madhya Bharat Financial Corporation into the 'Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation'. The authorised share capital of the Corporation is Rs. two crores out of which one lakh fully paid shares of the value of Rs. one crore were issued in the first instance. The object of the Corporation is to give financial assistance to existing and potential industrialists by providing institutional credit-medium and long-term-thus increase industrial production Public limited companies. Co-operative societies, private limited companies, partnerships, joint Hindu families and sole pro-

prietorship concerns are eligible to get financial assistance from the Corporation. The rate of interest charged by the Corporation would vary in keeping with the general money market condition, the prevailing rate being six per cent per annum.

The period of repayment of loan is decided on the merits of each case, but generally it is 12 years. However, the maximum period upto which loans can be granted is fixed at 20 years. The principal amount of loan will be repayable by instalments which would be determined according to the circumstances of each case. In Sagar district the Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation has given loan only to one concern dealing in the manufacture of ice and preservation of potatoes. Against an application for a loan of Rs one lakh the Corporation sanctioned a loan amounting to Rs. 60 thousand.

The policy of the State has generally been to encourage the growth of small scale industries wherever possible by giving them assistance under the State Aid to Industries Act, 1958. Government also provides for the grant of subsidy on the power consumed, subsidy for providing managerial assistance to Industrial Cooperative Societies, etc During the Second Five Year Plan, plans were made to establish an Industrial Estate at Sagar on a plot of land measuring 11.05 acres Some sheds have been constructed which are available for accommodating small-scale industries.

In the district the extent of financial assistance rendered by Government under the State Aid to Industries Act during the period 1956-57 to 1960-61 is shown in the Table below:—

Year	Amount Rs.
1956-57	5,000
1957-58	29,000
1958-59	31,725
1959-60	41,441
1960-61	42,670

During the Second Five Year Plan, i.e., 1956-61, the progress made in respect of State assistance to industrial development in the district is tabulated below—

Scheme (1)	Achievements (2)
1. Training-*cum*-Common Facility Centre in Footwere at Sagar	Necessary tools and equipment were purchased and the Centre started imparting training from 2nd February, 1959.
2. Industrial Estate, Sagar	14.05 acres of Government land was obtained for the Scheme. Construction work of three sheds of 100' x60' is well under progress.
3. Training-*cum*-Production Centre, Leather-goods, Khurai.	Necessary tools and equipment were purchased and the Centre started from 2nd March, 1961.
4. Emporium of Small-scale Industries, Sagar.	Suitable building was taken on rent for the Emporium. Furniture, etc., was purchased. Emporium started functioning from 21st November 1960.

CURRENCY AND COINAGE.

The Nagpur rupees and the *Balashahee* rupees were current at Sagar at the time the East India Company took over the area. The disparity in the value between these two currencies affected adversely the interests of the cultivators and landlords alike in the matter of payment of revenue. The exchange value between the two kinds of rupees worked as an additional burden since the assessment was made in *Balashahee* rupees In order to remove the hardship it was decided to introduce a currency reform, and the Mint at Sagar which had been minting the *Balashahee* rupee was put under the supervision of one Captain Presgrave. The Mint coined the Sagar rupees of 180 grains which became the legal currency. The exchange rate was fixed by the Government in 1827 when the treasury started issuing 100 Sagar rupees in exchange for 120 Nagpur rupees. The Mint was later removed to Calcutta and its building was used for housing the tahsil office and the offices of Public Works and Forest Departments.

Decimal Coinage.—The swith over to decimal currency and new coinage (in the year 1957) has not wholly replaced the old coins although the people, both in urban and rural areas, are getting used to the decimal coins more and more.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

Course of Trade

Sagar town and the district generally has enjoyed a good export trade in the past. A passage in the 'Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Saugor District' is interesting in this connection:

> "Wheat (pissi) and the oilseeds, linseed, tilli, & c., are the chief articles of surplus production in the Saugor Tahsil and District. These are now largely exported by rail to Bombay. The chief articles of import are salt, sugar and gur, tobacco, spices, cotton goods, metals and hardware and kerosene oil. These come from Bombay by rail. The balance of trade is largely in favour of Saugor, and money has to come from Bombay to pay for the exports."[1]

Wheat and oilseeds had always been largely exported from Sagar tahsil and district. Before 1870, in which year the Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Bombay to Jabalpur was opened, the exports were mainly in the direction of Rajputana, Bundelkhand and Central India. Sagar was then the transit link in the salt trade between Rajputana and districts of Lalitpur, Jabalpur, Narsimhapur, Damoh and Mandla and large quantity of salt was brought to Sagar on pack bullocks by Banjaras who took away wheat and oilseeds in exchange.

In 1877-78 the Sagar grain dealers had an outlet for new markets and from that time upto 1888 the surplus grain of the Sagar tahsil was mostly exported to Bombay *via* Kareli. In 1888 the railway line from Bina Junction on the Indian Midland Railway to Sagar town was opened and since then the surplus grain of Sagar tahsil has been exported to Bombay by this line.

An idea of the articles of trade from Sagar and into Sagar in those days can be obtained from the following Tables showing the exports and imports of Sagar, Nariaoli and Mundra since 1889 to the end of the calender year 1891.

Exports (in mds.)

Year	Wheat	Other grains	Linseed	Other articles	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1889 ..	[illegible]	2,035	7,105	21,179	1,11,609
1890 ..	1,36,71[illegible]	3,875	37,202	59,375	2,31,164
1891 ..	[illegible]	4,397	76,56[illegible]	[illegible]	7,20,371
Total ..	[illegible]	10,307	1,20,9[illegible]	1,28,306	10,63,144

1. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District 1887-1897, p 27

Imports (In mds.)

Year		Cotton piece-goods European	Cotton piece-goods Indian	Metals	Salt	Wheat	Other grains	Other articles	Total
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1889	..	1,959	338	2,089	21,844	1,921	1,261	35,637	65,049
1890	..	5,098	1,657	3,576	50,151	5,238	3,613	82,344	151,677
1891	..	7,969	1,193	4,136	65,039	13,531	1,089	126,470	222,427
Total	..	15,026	3,188	9,801	137,034	20,690	8,963	244,451	439,153

Both export and import trade indicate a steady increase in volume during this period. The Table below which gives the retail prices of certain essential articles in Sagar town during the same three years also gives an indication of the purchasing power of the rupee in that period.

Retail Prices in Sagar Town

(Seers per Rs.)

Year		Wheat	Gram	Jowar	Til
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1889	..	15.85	..	18.65	7.98
1890	..	14.79	19.60	17.17	8.97
1891	..	12.27	15.20	14.08	8.93

Trade seems to have flourished after better means of communication were opened. The Settlemnt Report says: "Before 1870 there was little external trade. Cotton was exported to Mirzapur and Bombay, and in the 30 years' Settlement Report Garhakota is said to have been a considerable cotton market. Saugor was also the centre of the salt trade from Rajputana to the adjoining districts of British India and there was some export of wheat and oil seeds in exchange....... The figures are eloquent of growing prosperity. It was reported that wheat stocks were held up in 1889 and 1890, but that

the exports of 1891, which beat all previous records, included the whole available surplus and fetched extraordinarily high prices. In 1909, when the area under wheat was less than half the pre-famine figure, exports naturally fell. But the average of the years ending 1913 was 2½ times as much as the average of last Settlement; and in the great year of 1913 exports were more than twice as much as the old record of 1891. Allowing for the good harvests of recent years, it is still obvious that improved communications and the arrival of big agencies have developed a more profitable and businesslike disposal of produce. At the same time a more varied cropping has increased the export of other grains sixfold and of oilseeds nearly fourfold."[1]

The last Saugor District Gazetteer gives the following Tables which show the quantity and value of principal exports and imports of the district in the first decade of the Century:

Exports

(In thousands)

Serial No.	Articles	Quantity in mds.	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Cotton raw	16	219
2	Fodder	[illegible]	20
3	Wheat	4,11	1,069
4	Other grains & pulses	[illegible]93	814
5	Hides & skin	15	368
6	Horns	1	16
7	Oil seed	1,87	736
8	Ghi	61	1,395
9	Others (Hemp & Jute)	4	32
10	Others (Value N.A.)	1,30	..
	Total	1,231	4,669

1. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Saugor District 1911 to 1916, pp 23-24

Imports

(in thousands)

Serial No. (1)	Articles (2)	Quantity in maunds (3)	Value Rs. (4)
1	Twist and yarn	10	364
2	Cotton piece-goods	21	955
3	Grains & Pulses	74	212
4	Hemp & Jute	16	137
5	Metals	14	280
6	Kerosine oil	27	94
7	Salt	111	389
8	Sugar	90	586
9	Others (Tobacco)	4	32
10	Others (value N. A.)	134	..

The total value of the main articles exported in 1903 was Rs. 46 and half lakhs and the value of articles imported Rs. 30 and half lakhs, leaving a balance of Rs 16 lakhs in favour of the Sagar district. This could well be attributed to the opening of Bina-Katni line. The total revenue of the district in 1902-03 was Rs. 7.78 lakhs and the excess of exports over imports was double the figure, which, no doubt, was a very satisfactory state of affairs for a purely agricultural district like Sagar.

The complexion of the import trade has undergone many changes, as will be evident from a study of the following Table. Showing the imports for the years 1937-38, 1941-42, 1951-52 and 1959-60.

Serial No. (1)	Items (2)	1937-38 (3)	1941-42 (4)	1951-52 (5)	1959-60 (6)
1	Grains net imports (mds.)	2,13,711	2,15,975	2,77,935	2,09,774
2	Refined sugar net imports (Rs.).	1,09,183	3,51,716	11,607	19,92,712
3	Un-refined net imports Sugar (Mds.)	30,298	30,092	36,137	46,853
4	Ghee net imports (Mds.)	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	6,145
5	Animals for slaughter (Nos.)	2,884	6,019	15,991	13,926
6	Oil and oil seed and articles used for lighting washing net imports (Rs.)	1,09,779	1,23,379	6,40,622	2,92,265
7	Articles used in the construction of building net imports (Rs.).	50,690	11,974	86,508	1,43,704
8	Drugs gum, spices and perfumes net imports (Rs.)	1,98,050	1,18,773	26,77,766	19,38,221
9	Tobacco net imports (Rs.)	4,61,361	4,95,055	36,61,739	21,11,989
10	Cloth piece-goods & articles of clothing & manufactured articles of dress net imports (Rs.)	4,19,352	7,34,396	23,47,131	36,77,756
11	Metals and articles of metals net imports (Rs.)	2,46,563	3,80,957	25,62,844	50,81,208

Source :—Sagar Municipality.

Though considerable goods traffic moves by road the rail-borne trade has the major share of the exports and imports in the district; principally from three railway stations of Sagar, Khurai and Jeruwakhera. The quantity of the import trade for 1957 and 1958 from principal stations is given below:—

(Mds.)

Station (1)	1957 (2)	1958 (3)
Bhagera	1,10[illegible]	84
Khurai	1,05,284	1,19,816
Jeruwakhera .	653	816
Nariaoli . .	353	263
Sagar	11,91,579	11,30,439
Ladhora-Khurd ..	152	358
Ganeshganj	13,635	21,102

The main exports from the district are pulses and timber. The quantity of exports by rail from principal stations in the district, in 1957 and 1958 are given below:—

(Mds.)

Station (1)	1957 (2)	1958 (3)
Bhagera	13,591	15,771
Khurai	5,75,727	5,25,977
Jeruwakhera . .	70,613	50,872
Nariaoli .	1,311	1,241
Sagar	12,55,3[illegible]6	10,82,0[illegible]
Ladhora Khurd .. .	8	..
Ganeshganj	30,763	27,367

Regulated Markets.

In Sagar district it is only in Sagar town that a regulated market exists. The main commodities that are dealt in this market are: wheat, masur dal, gram, linseed and tur. Cultivators bring their commodities to this market for sale and a municipal tax of 37 paise per cart load is collected from the cultivators.

Sagar district is predominantly agricultural and the main produce of the district are wheat, paddy, moong, tur and other pulses. The merchants of this place conduct sizeable trade in these

foodgrains. Important whole-sale mandis of the district exist in all the four tahsils, as shown below: —

Tahsil	Name of Mandis
Sagar	Sagar
Rehli	Deori, Garhakota.
Khurai	Khurai, Mandi-Bamora, Bina Etawa
Banda	Banda.

Out of the seven mandis the four at Sagar, Khurai, Mandi-Bamora and Bina-Etawa are specifically grain mandis, while the other three, *i.e.*, Deori, Garhakota and Banda deal in miscellaneous goods.

The weekly markets or bazars are the chief marketing centres in Sagar district, as in other parts of the State. These bazars have been in existence for the past many decades. Russell says in the Gazetteer: "The important weekly bazars or markets of the Saugor tahsil are those of Saugor, Rahatgarh, Karrapur. Shahpur, Nariaoli Dhana, Jaisinghnagar, Bilehra, Pamakheri and Surkhi. In Saugor itself different markets are held for special articles, as corn and thread. The most important one is on Wednesdays, when cattle are sold beside other articles. Cattle are also sold at the Rahatgarh market, as well as locally manufactured iron articles, and leather shoes. Karrapur is a large grain market and grain for export is sold there. The leading bazars of Khurai tahsil are those of Khurai, Etawa, Malthone, Khimlasa and Pithoria "[1]

At present weekly markets are held at 40 places in the district. The largest number of markets are held in Sagar tahsil, and next comes Rehli tahsil.

Following is the tahsil-wise list of market places in the district alongwith the days in which they are held : —

Sagar Tahsil

Market place	Day
1. Rahatgarh	Saturday
2. Nariaoli	Sunday
3. Jaisinghnagar	Monday and Friday
4. Bilera	Wednesday
5. Surkhi : ..	Thursday
6. Dhana	Tuesday
7. Sanodha	Friday
8. Shahpur	Monday
9. Karrapur . ..	Saturday
10. Sagar	Wednesday
11. Jullandhar	Wednesday
12. Jeruwakhera	Thursday
13. Parsoria	Sunday
14. Hilgan	Monday

1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906. pp. 148-149.

Khurai Tahsil

Market place	Day
1. Bhangarh	Wednesday
2. Bina	Friday
3. Bamora	Wednesday
4. Khimlasa	Sunday
5. Khurai	Monday
6. Barodia Kalan	Sunday
7. Rathora	Thursday
8. Barodia Nao Nagar	Sunday
9. Wardha	Saturday
10. Karsoan	Friday

Rehli Tahsil

Market place	Day
1. Garhakota	Friday
2. Rehli	Sunday
3. Deori	Friday
4. Kesli	Thursday
5. Gourjhamar	Sunday
6. Rasena	Wednesday
7. Shahpur	Monday
8. Pada	Wednesday
9. Maharajpur	Thursday
10. Singhpur	Sunday
11. Chandpur	Saturday

Banda Tahsil

Market place	Day
1. Banda	Wednesday
2. Shahgarh	Saturday
3. Rorawan	Saturday
4. Bara	Thursday
5. Nemon	Friday

Fairs, Melas and other Marketing Centres

Fairs have been traditionally associated with large gatherings of the community on religious or festive occasions, when a brisk trade in a variety of goods is combined with social gaiety. These fairs vary in size and duration, some of them being very large in which persons from distant places take part. Russell's 'Saugor District Gazetteer' refers to the Garhakota fair which lasted from Basant Panchami to Holi and served as the principal market for cattle, rice, spices, grocery, etc.

At present as many as 36 fairs and Melas are held in different parts of the district (Appendix B). Of these twelve fairs are held in Sagar tahsil while Banda, Rehli and Khurai tahsils hold eleven, eight and five fairs, respectively.

COOPERATIVE MARKETING

Cooperative marketing in Sagar district is of comparatively recent origin. The All-India Rural Credit Survey Committee appointed by the Reserve Bank of India, whose enquiry covered Sagar district, recommended a scheme of integrated rural credit. It recommended a programme for the processing and marketing of agricultural produce on a co-operative basis with a view to giving the maximum benefit to the producer as also to eliminate the exploitation of the producer by the middle-men.

In the Second Five Year Plan the first Cooperative Marketing Society was organised by converting the Khurai Cooperative Agricultural Association in 1957-58. Similarly during 1958-59 a Co-operative Marketing Society was organised at Sagar by converting the Sagar district Cooperative Agricultural Association. During the year 1959-60 and 1960-61 cooperative marketing societies were organised at Deori and Rehli, respectively. Thus before the close of the Second Plan, in all, four co-operative marketing societies came into existence and started working During 1960-61 they were able to deal with 2.3 per cent of the marketable surplus of the agricultural produce. The details of these four societies are given below:—

Name of Society	Date of establishment	Area of operation
(1)	(2)	(3)
The Khurai Co-operative Marketing Society Ltd., Khurai.	3-2-1958	The Khurai Development Block of the Khurai tahsil.
The Sagar Agricutulral & Marketing Society Ltd., Sagar.	25-3-1959	The Sagar tahsil.
The Deori Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd., Deori.	10-11-1959	The Deori Development Block of the Rehli tahsil.
The Rehli Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd., Rehli.	7-9-1960	The Rehli Development Block of the Rehli tahsil.

As the marketing societies are mainly concerned with the market ing of agricultural produce, their membership is open to the agriculturists and their co-operative credit societies. A few non-agriculturists may also join the membership as individual share holders and sympathisers. The State Government also becomes a member by contributing towards the share capital of a marketing society An essential qualification for becoming a member is that one should reside in the area of its operation.

In order to stimulate the growth of the marketing societies, the State Government gives financial assistance in the shape of purchase of shares, godown loan and subsidy for constructing godowns as also a subsidy for meeting the establishment costs for the first three years. The Government also shares with the Reserve Bank of India the cost of training the Manager. The following financial assistance has been given to the four marketing societies during the Second Plan:—

(in Rs.)

Name of Society	Towards share capital	Godown loan	Godown subsidy	Staff subsidy
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
The Khurai Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd., Khurai.	20,000	15,000	5,000	5,000
The Sagar Agricultural and Marketing Society Ltd., Sagar.	20,000	15,000	5,000	5,000
The Deori Co-operative Marketing Society Ltd., Deori.	20,000	15,000	5,000	4,150
The Rehli Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd., Rehli.	20,000	15,000	5,000	2,500

Controlled shops that came into existence during the last War to ensure provisioning at reasonable prices were established in Sagar district from 1942 onwards.

After the World War controlled shops were changed into fair price shops which worked upto the year 1954-55. Wheat, rice and sugar were sold by these shops after the prices of the commodities were fixed by the Deputy Commissioner. When sugar was in short supply in 1959-60, it was distributed through fair price shops in urban as well as rural areas.

In other places village committees were formed under the supervision of Tahsildars and Sub-Divisional Officers to distribute sugar. Licencees were appointed to import sugar from sugar factories of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, etc., and its price was fixed by the Collector. Distribution of sugar was arranged on the basis of a per capita quota. These shops continued upto April 1960, after which sugar was allowed to be sold in open market at fixed rate.

MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION

In the district threre are three main associations of merchants which are functioning They have all been registered under the Societies Registration Act. They are:—

1. Timber and Charcoal merchants' Association, Sagar,
2. Bidi and Tobacco Merchants' Association, Sagar.
3. Chamber of Commerce, Sagar.

Timber and Charcoal Merchants' Association, Sagar.—This Association was registered in 1945, and has 55 members. The main function of this Association is to protect the interests of the members of the Association in respect of timber and charcoal trade in the district

Bidi and Tobacco Merchants' Association, Sagar.—This Association was established and registered in the year 1946, for the purpose of bringing together those engaged in the bidi industry which is the most important industry in the district. It has 19 members

Chamber of Commerce, Sagar.—The Chamber of Commerce, Sagar was established on the 1st August 1957 and was registered on 3rd December. 1957 The object of the Chamber of Commerce is to promote the interests of the merchant community. Its jurisdiction covers the Sagar district. The members of the Chamber of Commerce have to pay Rs. 12 as annual subscription and Rs. Five as admission fee.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Russell's Saugor District Gazetteer mentions the different forms of measures that were then in use in the district.

"The grain measures in ordinary use are the following:—

One *poli* or *poholi*	=	25 tolas
One *pai* or *adheli*	=	2 *polis* = 50 tolas.
One *chauthia*	=	2 *pais* = 100 tolas or 1¼ seers
One *kuraiya* or *paila*	=	4 *chauthias* or 5 seers.
One *sei*	=	2 *kuraiyas* or 10 seers.
One *mani*	=	20 *seis* or 5 maunds

In Rehli the *chauthia* contains 105 tolas, and the *Kuraiya* 4½ *chauthias*, and the *mani* is thus equivalent to 6 maunds.

There is also a large *mani* in use, which is sometimes called "Saugor nap". This is double the size of the small *mani*, and therefore contains 10 maunds, and 12 maunds in Rehli. This *mani* is still of 20 *seis*, but *sei* contains 4 *kuraiyas*, while an intermediate measure, the *kuro* or *paila* has 2 *kuraiyas*, thus containing 10 seers and being equivalent to the Nagpur *kuro*. The *kuraiya* and *chauthia* are the measures commonly in use. Stamped brass *kuraiyas*, *chauthias* and *pais* have been issued by Government. The equivalent weights given for the above measures of capacity are for wheat. Thus a measure of a *mani* of wheat is equivalent to 200 seers weight of the grain. But an equivalent bulk of other grains often weighs either more or less than wheat and in such cases the *mani* contains in their case more or less than 200 seers. A *mani* of urad contains 215 to 225 seers, one of rice 210 to 220, of mung 210 to 215, of gram and makka about 200, of jowar 190 to 200, of linseed 165 and of jagni 150 seers. The wheat grown in Khurai is said to be heavier than in the rest of the District, so that a *mani* of this grain is equivalent to 210 seers.

"The *kos* contains three miles in Saugor and is sometimes called the 'Gondi Kos'. Distances smaller than a *kos* may be spoken of as so many *khets* (fields), a *khet* being two to three furlongs. The old measures of area were:—

20 *kachwansis* = 1 *biswansi*

20 *biswansis* = 1 *biswa*

20 *biswas* = 1 *bigha*

"The *bigha* is practically equivalent to an acre, and the *kachwansi* rather more than half a square yard. But malguzars and intelligent tenants now talk of areas in acres and decimals of an acre; while the common practice of the people is to express area in terms of the seed capacity of the land. A *mani* of land is in this manner equivalent to 4 acres, and in Khurai to 3 acres; this being the area of land in which *mani* measure of wheat is sown. Another method is to talk of a *hal* or plough of land, that is the area which can be cultivated with a plough of two bullocks. A plough is equivalent to three *manis* or 12 acres of ordinary land, and to 8 or 10 acres of *rathia* soil. Which is somewhat difficult to cultivate. In Khurai the plough is said to be only 6 acres owing to the stiffness of the soil.

"The precious metals and jewels are sold by the *tola*. One *tola* contains 12 *mashas* or 96 *rattis*. The *tola* of gold differs from the standard tola weight by one *ratti*. That is, it is equivalent to 1 1/96 times an ordinary *tola* or rupee weight. For silver the ordinary *tola* is used. The cheaper metals and ghee and other solid articles are sold by weight in seers and maunds But for weighing hemp and cotton a pukka seer of 100 *tolas* is employed, and for other articles the cutcha or Government seer of 80 *tolas* The price of oil is quoted by weight, but it is usually sold by measurment. A pot containing 1 chittack of oil is called *chhatki*, one of 2 chittacks a *kaiya*, one of 4 chittacks a *pauwa*, and one containing a seer weight a *sera*."[1]

Prior to the introduction of the metric system the C. P. and Berar Weights and Measures of Capacity Act. 1928, was in force in this district. The use of the following units of weights and capacity measures was allowed under the Act.

The primary standard of weight was called a *seer* (a weight of metal).

The primary standard of measure of capacity was called a *paili* equivalent to five-sixteenth of a gallon of water.

The *seer* and *paili* were the units of weights and measures of capacity from which all other weights and measures of capacity were derived—

One-eighteeth part of *seer*	=	One *tola*.
Forty *seers*	=	One *maund*
One-half part of the *paili*	=	An *adholi*.
A *katha*	=	Four *pailis*.
A *kuroh*	=	Eight *pailis*.

These weights and measures continued to be in use until the introduction of the metric system of weights and measures. The Central Government, enacted the Standards of Weights and Measures Act, 1956 for the introduction of the metric system in the country.

The State Government also enacted the Madhya Pradesh Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1959. These weights were made applicable in this district from 1st April 1960 with two year's transitional period during which the old weights could also be used side by side with the new metric weights.

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1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, pp. 151-153.

The provision regarding the metric unit of length was made applicable with one year's transitional period from 1st October, 1961. The metric unit of capacity is proposed to be introduced in distirct from 1st April 1961. with one year's transitional period.

Thus in place of the old inconvenient system of weights and capacity measures, a new simple, scientific and uniform system has gradually been brought into effect in this district

later, in 1948, opened a District Organizer's Office. The progress in General Insurance since then prompted this firm to open a branch office in the year 1959, the first office of its kind to be established at Sagar.

The business transacted by the British India General Insurance Co., includes coverage of risks of fire, accident, marine, workmen's compensation, transit, burglary, personal accidents, etc. The annual risk covered by the British India General Insurance Co., is reported to be roughly about Rs. one crore.

The claims paid to private parties and individuals by the Company were reported to be about Rs. 50 to 60 thousand a year.

The risk under-writing premium collected in the past three years was as under:

Year	Rs.
1959	1,10,000.
1960	1,50,000.
1961	2,00,000.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT.

Assistance for the industrial development of the State is provided either by the Government direct or through the Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation.

Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation.—In former Madhya Bharat, a Financial Corporation was established under the State Financial Corporation Act, 1951. After the formation of the new State of Madhya Pradesh on 1st November, 1956, the Government of Madhya Pradesh in exercise of the powers conferred on them by sub-section (1) of section three of the State Financial Corporation Act, 1951 (LXIII of 1951) notified the change of the Madhya Bharat Financial Corporation into the 'Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation'. The authorised share capital of the Corporation is Rs. two crores out of which one lakh fully paid shares of the value of Rs. one crore were issued in the first instance. The object of the Corporation is to give financial assistance to existing and potential industrialists by providing institutional credit-medium and long-term thus increase industrial production. Public limited companies, Co-operative societies, private limited companies, partnerships, joint Hindu families and sole pro-

prietorship concerns are eligible to get financial assistance from the Corporation. The rate of interest charged by the Corporation would vary in keeping with the general money market condition, the prevailing rate being six per cent per annum.

The period of repayment of loan is decided on the merits of each case, but generally it is 12 years. However, the maximum period upto which loans can be granted is fixed at 20 years. The principal amount of loan will be repayable by instalments which would be determined according to the circumstances of each case. In Sagar district the Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation has given loan only to one concern dealing in the manufacture of ice and preservation of potatoes. Against an application for a loan of Rs one lakh the Corporation sanctioned a loan amounting to Rs. 60 thousand.

The policy of the State has generally been to encourage the growth of small scale industries wherever possible by giving them assistance under the State Aid to Industries Act, 1958. Government also provides for the grant of subsidy on the power consumed, subsidy for providing managerial assistance to Industrial Cooperative Societies, etc. During the Second Five Year Plan, plans were made to establish an Industrial Estate at Sagar on a plot of land measuring 11.05 acres. Some sheds have been constructed which are available for accommodating small scale industries.

In the district the extent of financial assistance rendered by Government under the State Aid to Industries Act during the period 1956-57 to 1960-61 is shown in the Table below:—

Year			Amount Rs.
1956-57	..	..	5,000
1957-58	..	..	23,000
1958-59	..	..	31,725
1959-60	..	..	41,441
1960-61	..	..	49,670

During the Second Five Year Plan, i.e., 1956-61, the progress made in respect of State assistance to industrial development in the district is tabulated below—

Scheme	Achievements
(1)	(2)
1. Training-*cum*-Common Facility Centre in Footwere at Sagar	Necessary tools and equipment were purchased and the Centre started imparting training from 2nd February, 1959.
2. Industrial Estate, Sagar	14.05 acres of Government land was obtained for the Scheme. Construction work of three sheds of 100' x60' is well under progress.
3. Training-*cum*-Production Centre, Leather-goods, Khurai.	Necessary tools and equipment were purchased and the Centre started from 2nd March, 1961.
4. Emporium of Small-scale Industries, Sagar.	Suitable building was taken on rent for the Emporium. Furniture, etc., was purchased. Emporium started functioning from 21st November 1960.

CURRENCY AND COINAGE.

The Nagpur rupees and the *Balashahee* rupees were current at Sagar at the time the East India Company took over the area. The disparity in the value between these two currencies affected adversely the interests of the cultivators and landlords alike in the matter of payment of revenue. The exchange value between the two kinds of rupees worked as an additional burden since the assessment was made in *Balashahee* rupees In order to remove the hardship it was decided to introduce a currency reform, and the Mint at Sagar which had been minting the *Balashahee* rupee was put under the supervision of one Captain Presgrave. The Mint coined the Sagar rupees of 180 grains which became the legal currency. The exchange rate was fixed by the Government in 1827 when the treasury started issuing 100 Sagar rupees in exchange for 120 Nagpur rupees. The Mint was later removed to Calcutta and its building was used for housing the tahsil office and the offices of Public Works and Forest Departments.

Decimal Coinage.—The swith-over to decimal currency and new coinage (in the year 1957) has not wholly replaced the old coins although the people, both in urban and rural areas, are getting used to the decimal coins more and more.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Course of Trade

Sagar town and the district generally has enjoyed a good export trade in the past. A passage in the 'Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Saugor District' is interesting in this connection:

> "Wheat (pissi) and the oilseeds, linseed, tilli, &c., are the chief articles of surplus production in the Saugor Tahsil and District. These are now largely exported by rail to Bombay. The chief articles of import are salt, sugar and gur, tobacco, spices, cotton goods, metals and hardware and kerosene oil. These come from Bombay by rail. The balance of trade is largely in favour of Saugor, and money has to come from Bombay to pay for the exports."[1]

Wheat and oilseeds had always been largely exported from Sagar tahsil and district. Before 1870, in which year the Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Bombay to Jabalpur was opened, the exports were mainly in the direction of Rajputana, Bundelkhand and Central India. Sagar was then the transit link in the salt trade between Rajputana and districts of Lalitpur, Jabalpur, Narsinghpur, Damoh and Mandla and large quantity of salt was brought to Sagar on pack-bullocks by Banjaras who took away wheat and oilseeds in exchange.

In 1877-78 the Sagar grain dealers had an outlet for new markets and from that time upto 1888 the surplus grain of the Sagar tahsil was mostly exported to Bombay *via* Kareli. In 1888 the railway line from Bina Junction on the Indian Midland Railway to Sagar town was opened and since then the surplus grain of Sagar tahsil has been exported to Bombay by this line.

An idea of the articles of trade from Sagar and into Sagar in those days can be obtained from the following Tables showing the exports and imports of Sagar, Nariaoli and Mundra since 1889 to the end of the calender year 1891.

Exports (in mds.)

Year	Wheat	Other grains	Linseed	Other articles	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1889 ..	79,200	2,035	7,195	21,179	1,11,609
1890 ..	1,36,712	3,875	37,202	53,375	2,31,164
1891 ..	5,88,653	4,397	76,569	50,752	7,20,371
Total ..	8,04,565	10,307	1,20,966	1,28,306	10,63,144

1 Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District 1887-1897, p. 27

Imports (in mds.)

Year		Cotton piece-goods European	Cotton piece-goods Indian	Metals	Salt	Wheat	Other grains	Other articles	Total
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1889	..	1,959	338	2,089	21,844	1,921	1,261	35,637	65,049
1890	..	5,098	1,657	3,576	50,151	5,238	3,613	82,344	151,677
1891	..	7,969	1,193	4,136	65,039	13,531	4,089	126,470	222,427
Total	..	15,026	3,188	9,801	137,034	20,690	8,963	244,451	439,153

Both export and import trade indicate a steady increase in volume during this period. The Table below which gives the retail prices of certain essential articles in Sagar town during the same three years also gives an indication of the purchasing power of the rupee in that period.

Retail Prices in Sagar Town

Seers per Rs. 1

Year		Wheat	Gram	Jowar	Til
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1889	..	14.65	..	18.65	7.98
1890	..	14.79	19.60	17.17	8.97
1891	..	12.27	19.20	14.08	8.93

Trade seems to have flourished after better means of communication were opened. The Settlement Report says: "Before 1870 there was little external trade. Cotton was exported to Mirzapur and Bombay, and in the 30 years' Settlement Report Garhakota is said to have been a considerable cotton market. Saugor was also the centre of the salt trade from Rajputana to the adjoining districts of British India and there was some export of wheat and oil seeds in exchange...... The figures are eloquent of growing prosperity. It was reported that wheat stocks were held up in 1889 and 1890, but that

the exports of 1891, which beat all previous records, included the whole available surplus and fetched extraordinarily high prices. In 1903, when the area under wheat was less than half the pre-famine figure, exports naturally fell But the average of the years ending 1913 was 2½ times as much as the average of last Settlement; and in the great year of 1913 exports were more than twice as much as the old record of 1891. Allowing for the good harvests of recent years, it is still obvious that improved communications and the arrival of big agencies have developed a more profitable and business like disposal of produce At the same time, a more varied cropping has increased the export of other grains sixfold and of oilseeds nearly four fold."[1]

The last Saugor District Gazetteer gives the following Tables which show the quantity and value of principal exports and imports of the district in the first decade of the Century:

Exports

(in thousands)

Serial No.	Articles	Quantity (in tons)	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Cotton raw	16	219
2	Fodder	16	20
3	Wheat	4,11	1,069
4	Other grains & pulses	3,93	814
5	Hides & skins	15	368
6	Horns	1	16
7	Oil seeds	1,37	736
8	Ghi	61	1,395
9	Others (Hemp & Jute)	4	32
10	Others (Value N. A.)	1,50	..
	Total	1,234	4,669

1 Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Saugor District 1911 to 1916, pp 23 24.

Imports

(in thousands)

Serial No. (1)	Articles (2)	Quantity in maunds (3)	Value Rs. (4)
1	Twist and yarn	10	364
2	Cotton piece-goods	21	955
3	Grains & Pulses	74	212
4	Hemp & Jute	16	137
5	Metals	14	280
6	Kerosine oil	27	94
7	Salt	111	389
8	Sugar	90	586
9	Others (Tobacco)	4	32
10	Others (value N. A.)	134	..

The total value of the main articles exported in 1903 was Rs. 46 and half lakhs and the value of articles imported Rs. 30 and half lakhs, leaving a balance of Rs. 16 lakhs in favour of the Sagar district. This could well be attributed to the opening of Bina-Katni line. The total revenue of the district in 1902-03 was Rs. 7.78 lakhs and the excess of exports over imports was double the figure, which, no doubt was a very satisfactory state of affairs for a purely agricultural district like Sagar.

The complexion of the import trade has undergone many changes, as will be evident from a study of the following Table. Showing the imports for the years 1937-38, 1941-42, 1951-52 and 1959-60.

Serial No. (1)	Items (2)	1937-38 (3)	1941-42 (4)	1951-52 (5)	1959-60 (6)
1	Grains net imports (mds.)	2,13,711	2,45,975	2,77,935	2,89,774
2	Refined sugar net imports (Rs.).	1,09,183	9,51,716	14,687	19,92,712
3	Un-refined net imports Sugar (Mds.)	30,298	30,092	36,137	46,853
4	Ghee net imports (Mds.)	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	6,145
5	Animals for slaughter (Nos.)	2,864	6,019	15,991	13,926
6	Oil and oil seed and articles used for lighting washing net imports (Rs.)	1,08,779	1,23,379	6,40,622	2,92,265
7	Articles used in the construction of building net imports (Rs.).	50,690	11,974	86,508	1,43,704
8	Drugs gum, spices an d perfumes net imports (Rs.)	1,98,050	1,18,773	26,77,766	19,38,221
9	Tobacco net imports (Rs.)	4,61,361	4,95,055	36,61,739	21,11,989
10	Cloth piece-goods & articles of clothing & manufactured articles of dress net imports (Rs.)	4,19,352	7,34,336	23,47,131	36,77,756
11	Metals and articles of metals net imports (Rs.)	2,16,563	3,80,957	25,62,844	50,81,208

Source :—Sagar Municipality.

Though considerable goods traffic moves by road the rail-borne trade has the major share of the exports and imports in the district; principally from three railway stations of Sagar, Khunai and Jeruwa-khera. The quantity of the import trade for 1957 and 1958 from principal stations is given below:—

(Mds.)

Station (1)	1957 (2)	1958 (3)
Bhagera . .	1,16[illegible]	84
Khurai . ..	1,05,284	1,19,816
Jeruwakhera .. .	653	816
Narraoli	353	263
Sagar	11,94,779	11,30,439
Ladhora-Khurd	152	358
Ganeshganj	13,635	24,102

The main exports from the district are pulses and timber. The quantity of exports by rail from principal stations in the district, in 1957 and 1958 are given below:—

(Mds.)

Station (1)	1957 (2)	1958 (3)
Bhagera	13,591	15,774
Khurai ..	5,75,727	5,25,977
Jeruwakhera . .	70,613	50,872
Narraoli .	1,314	1,211
Sagar . ..	12,15,326	10,82,055
Ladhona-khurd .. .	8	..
Ganeshganj	30,763	27,367

Regulated Markets.

In Sagar district it is only in Sagar town that a regulated market exists. The main commodities that are dealt in this market are: wheat, masur dal, gram, linseed and tur. Cultivators bring their commodities to this market for sale and a municipal tax of 37 paise per cart load is collected from the cultivators.

Sagar district is pre-dominantly agricultural and the main produce of the district are wheat, paddy, moong, tur and other pulses. The merchants of this place conduct sizeable trade in these

(1) **Sagar-Kanpur Road.**—About this road the Settlement Report of 1867 says :—

"This road was formerly the great traffic route through Bundelkhand to Cawnpore, and large sums of money appear to have been expended upon it. It has fallen into disuse for several reasons. One of the principal ones is, that a safer route *via* Malthone, Lullitpore and Jhansi has been constructed and the old road is avoided by travellers owing to robbers, native states and wild animals which frequent the jungle throughout the length of the road."[1]

This road was originally an Imperial highway. It runs in the north-east direction of the district up to 54.50 miles and leaves the district boundary in the 55th mile, entering Panna district. For the first 2.9 miles it is merged with the Sagar-Kareli Road. It connects Sagar, the district headquarters with Banda, a tahsil headquarter and with Kanpur *via* Bundelkhand.

Up to the year 1888 the condition of the road was poor and it could be used only as a fair-weather track. But in 1890 it was realigned and gradually, during times of famines, 25 miles of its length was metalled and later on, by the year 1928, the whole length of the road was metalled. At present the road surface is tarred and its condition is good, making it motorable throughout the year.

The road passes through Banda in the 20th mile, Shahgarh in the 43rd mile and Hirapur in the 51st mile.

(2) **Sagar-Damoh Road.**—The Sagar-Damoh road was important locally and before the construction of Saugor-Damoh railway in 1895, it was the only means of communication, with Damoh and Jabalpur. Though the railway line runs almost parallel to it, there is much passenger and goods traffic on the road. The road is also important from the point of view of the military communication as it forms part of the Jabalpur Jhansi main road connecting the brigade head quarters of Jabalpur and Jhansi *via* Damoh, Saugor and Lalitpur. It also connects Jabalpur with Indore *via* Rahatgarh. The road is motorable throughout the year but due to the construction of submergible bridges the traffic is occasionally held up during heavy rains.[1]

The work regarding the metalling of its surface was commenced during the famines and now the total length is metalled. It runs in the eastern direction of the district leading to Mirzapur *via* Rewa

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1. *Ibid*, 1867, p. 20.

on one side and to Jabalpur on the other. The road commences from zero mile stone at Sagar near the Church of England building and follows the Sagar-Kareli Road. It runs north-east to the border of district being merged with the Sagar Kareli road for the first 1 mile and 6 furlongs and afterwards with Sagar-Kanpur road for 2 miles and 6 furlongs and this length is not added into its total mileage. Within the district, the road passes through Parsoria in the 15th mile (11th mile of this road) and Garhakota in the 29th mile (25th mile of this road) where a large annual fair is held in February every year.

(3) **Rahatgarh-Vidisha Road.**—The length of this road up to the border of Sagar district is 11 miles. It is a first class metalled road and connects Vidisha with Sagar. It commences from the bridge over the Bina river about a mile from Rahatgarh. It carries heavy goods traffic chiefly consisting of grain. The road is also important because it connects the state's capital with Sagar.

(4) **Rahatgarh-Bhopal Road.**—This road takes off at the 25th mile on the Sagar Rahatgarh road. Its length from Rahatgarh up to the Sagar district border is 9.50 miles. The road was constructed after 1951. It is a first class metalled road. It has now become more important as it connects Bhopal, the State's capital with Jabalpur and the Vindhya Pradesh region through Sagar.

(III) **Major District Roads.**—The total length of these roads is 74.80 miles and their lengthwise details are as follows. They form 1.7 per cent of the State's total:—

Serial No.	Name of road	Length Miles	Length Km.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Sagar Khurai Road	29.70	47.34
2	Sagar-Rehli Road	23.50	37.60
3	Sagar Rahatgarh Road	21.60	34.56
	Total ..	74.80	119.50

(1) **Sagar-Khurai Road.**—It is an important road connecting the district headquarters with Khurai, the headquarters of a tahsil and large town which is also an important grain producing centre of the district. In spite of the fact that the railway line connecting the two places runs parallel to the road, there is a good deal of

traffic on this road. A large quantity of salt comes into Sagar market by this route. The road is motorable in fair weather only due to the existence of flush causeway on the Dhasan river in the 17th mile of the road.

The condition of this road prior to the year 1948-49 was more or less like that of a cart track. But, gradually from 1948 onwards more attention was given to this road and its whole length was metalled by the year 1959. It passes through a plain area partly covered with thin jungle and partly under wheat cultivation. The important places on its route are Nariaoli village and railway station on the 15th mile.

(2) **Sagar-Rehli Road.**—The road is mainly of local importance. It connects Sagar, the district headquarters, with Rehli, the headquarters of a tahsil. It overlaps with the Sagar Karcli road, for the first 2.6 miles and this mileage is not added to its total length. It crosses the Bewas river in the 10th mile. It carries heavy traffic from the adjacent villages. The road is important as it carried heavy goods traffic, and also because Dhana air-strip is situated on the 11th mile. It is motorable throughout the year except in very heavy rains. On the Bewas river a flush causeway has been constructed. But the traffic comes to standstill for hours during the rains season when the Bewas is in spate, as there is no ferry available to carry motor vehicles. Similarly on the 19th mile (16th mile of this road) the road crosses the Satdhara river spanned by a causeway which is, however, impassable during rains.

Its surface is metalled and for the first 10 miles up to Dhana village it is tarred also. It passes through[1] Bamori village in the 7th mile, Barned village in the 9th mile, Bewas river in the 10th mile, Dhana village in the 11th mile. Ghatampur village in the 13th mile, Barauda village in the 15th mile, Satdhara river in the 19th mile and, passing through various small ghauts and dense forests reaches Rehli in 26th mile .

(3) **Sagar-Rahatgarh Road.**—Referring to this road in the Settlement Report in 1897, it was stated that "at the last Settlement the Saugor Rahatgarh road was the best in the district, being made, bridged and raised between Rahatgarh and Saugor a distance of 26 miles. A great deal of traffic and trade passed along this road which was the main route from Jubbulpore to Indore. There is a very fine bridge over the Bina river at Rahatgarh and another smaller one, over the Dhasan near Sehora. and there are culverts at all necessary places between Rahatgarh and Saugor."[2] It is merged with Sagar Vidisha Road for the first 3.90 miles

1. C. P. & Berar Motor Guide, 1931, p 87
2. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1887—97, p 31

At present it is one of the most important roads of the State as it connects Sagar, the district headquarters with Bhopal, the capital of Madhya Pradesh, and it also provides a link between Vindhya Pradesh region and Jhansi. A great deal of traffic and trade passed along this road which was the main route from Jabalpur to Indore. It is motorable throughout the year. It was formerly maintained in good condition as a continuation of Jhansi-Sagar road for travellers and caravans proceeding by road towards Bombay. At that time it was open throughout the year except for a few hours during very heavy rains. In the latter half of the 19th century it was neglected and was allowed to deteriorate but was again revived from 1900 onwards. It was one of the most important trade routes connecting Sagar with the rich tracts of the Rahatgarh Pargana in the west of the Sagar Tahsil. It carries by far the heaviest traffic next to the Sagar Nagpur road in the district. After the reorganisation of the States, the traffic has become heavier, several buses and trucks are plying day and night on this road carrying chiefly grain and forest produce from the neighbouring villages. A great deal of grain is also imported along this road from Gwalior and Bhopal. There is a fine bridge over the Bina river at mile 26. It is a high level bridge, one thousand feet in length, and is easily the finest masonry bridge in the district.

The road is in a good condition and recently its width has been increased to 12 feet and the road surface has also been tarred. The important places on the road are Phaulier in the 9th mile, Bhapel, in the 10th mile, Sehora in 13th mile and Rahatgarh in 25th mile.

(IV) Minor District Roads.—These roads connect the district headquarters with tahsils and principal markets of the district. They also serve to link the main roads and serve as railway feeder roads. The total length of these roads in the district is 107.00 miles, which forms 2.2 per cent of the State's total road length as detailed below :—

S. No.	Name of road	Length Miles	Length Km.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Etawah-Khimlasa-Malthone Road	23.90	38.25
2	Bhapel-Jaisinghnagar Road	14.75	23.50
3	Garhakota-Rehli Road	11.75	18.80
4	Khurai-Khimlasa Road	11.50	18.40
5	Banda-Baraitha Road	11.25	18.00
6	Garahakota-Patharia Road	5.60	8.95
7	Others	28.25	45.10
	Total	107.00	171.00

(1) **Etawah-Khimlasa-Malthone Road.**—This is an important road connecting Malthone and the surrounding villages with Bina railway junction which is connected with Etawah by a feeder road 2 miles in length. Out of its total length of 23.90 miles, the first 12 miles are motorable throughout the year except in very heavy rains, while the remaining length 11.90 miles is open for traffic in fair weather only. The road crosses Badel river in the 16th mile which is unbridged and so the road becomes impassable in heavy rains. It carries a great deal of traffic from the villages in the interior to the railway station. It starts from Etawah town and runs North-East through the open country where wheat cultivation is prominent It passes further through Dhanora village in the 4th mile, Basahri village in the 8th mile, Khimlasa town in the 12th mile, Badel river in the 16th mile, Bumhorilal village in the 18th mile, Khiriakalan village in the 19th mile and Malthone village in the 7th furlong of the 24th mile.

(2) **Bhapel-Jaisinghnagar Road.**—It is an off-shoot of the Sagar-Rahatgarh road and leads to Jaisinghnagar, an important village of Sagar district as well as the headquarters of a Community Development Block It branches off at the 10th mile from the Sagar-Rahatgarh road and runs towards south. It is not bridged and so is passable only in fair weather. It was originally an unmetalled road and at present it is being improved with the help of people's participation in which two thirds of the expenditure is being borne by the Government and one-third by the public. This road is of local use only.

(3) **Garhakota-Rehli Road.**—It connects Rehli, the tahsil headquarters with the trunk road from Sagar to Damoh and also forms the shortest route from Rehli to Patharia railway station on the Bina-Katni branch of the Central Railway. It is motorable in the dry season only. The road starts from Garhakota town in furlong 1 of mile 30 on the Sagar-Damoh road and runs in the southern direction. It passes through a plain area in which cultivation of wheat and juar is predominant. It crosses the Chauri river in the 5th mile; there is only a raised causeway on it which makes the river impassable in heavy rains. The road terminates at Rehli in the 12th mile.

(4) **Khurai-Khimlasa Road.**—This road is mostly unmetalled excepting the last 6 miles It links Khurai, the tahsil headquarters

and railway station, with Khimlasa town. This road is of local importance only. It starts from the fort in Khurai town and runs in the northern direction. It passes further through plain fields where wheat cultivation is carried on. The village through which the road passes are Dhargaon in the 4th mile, Teora in the 6th mile, Pamaria Jengar in the 9th mile, and Karrapur village in the 11th mile. The road ends at Khimlasa in the 12th mile.

(5) **Banda-Baraitha Road.**—It connects Baraitha and other forest villages with Banda, the tahsil headquarters and joins the Sagar Kanpur road. It carries a very heavy traffic in bamboos and fuel from the Baraitha forest. The road starts at the 21st mile of Sagar-Kanpur road and runs north-west. Though the actual length of the road is 19 miles, only the first 11 miles are motorable, and only in the dry season. The last eight miles length is not motorable as it is merely a cart track and passes through a steep ghaut at the 19th mile. It passes through Gugra Khurd village in the 8th mile, Barathi village in the 12th mile and finally Baraitha in the 19th mile.

(6) **Garhakota-Patharia Road.**—This is a small road connecting Garhakota, an important marketing centre in the district, with Patharia, a railway station on the Bina-Katni branch of the Central Railway. "A very large and important fair is held at Garhakota annually. It begins in February and lasts for about six weeks. A large trade is carried on in cattle, rice, spices and groceries. Thousands of cattle are brought in for sale, and purchased by dealers who attend the fair from all parts of the country."[1] It is motorable in the dry season only and carries much traffic from the surrounding villages to the railway station. It starts from the Garhakota Rest House and though the actual length of the road is 11 miles, some 5.30 miles of its length fall in the adjoining Damoh district. It crosses the Sonar river in the 5th mile over a raised causeway which is impassable in heavy rains. Passengers and goods have to be transported with the help of a ferry at such times. The road further passses through Ghogra village in the 6th mile, Bansa village in the 9th mile and Patharia town in the 11th mile.

(V) **Municipal Roads.** The total length of municipal roads in the district is 31.15 miles. The surface of these roads and their present general condition are fairly good. Their maintenance, however, is not as regular and satisfactory as the district roads.

1 *Ibid*, p. 33.

The following is the distribution of these roads in the municipal towns of the district :—

S. No.	Name of Municipality	Road length Miles	Road length Km.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Sagar Municipality	26.69	42.95
2	Khurai Municipality	12.46	20.05
3	Bina Etawah Municipality	2.00	3.22
4	Deori Municipality	Nil	
5	Garhakota Municipality	Nil	
	Total	41.15	66.22

Source. -Municipal Committees, Sagar district,

(1) **Sagar Municipal Roads.**—As indicated in the table above, the total length of municipal roads is 26.69 miles. While the length of the roads has remained practically constant between the years 1931-32 and 1958-59 their surface has undergone gradual changes during the above said period. In 1931-32 the total length of municipal roads was 26.21 miles, the surface being wholly of water bound mecadam. In 1958-59, the length rose to 26.69 miles of which 1.25 miles was made of cement concrete surface, 3.44 miles were bituminous and 22 miles were water bound mecadam. The leugth of municipal roads has remained almost stationery due to the fact that the Sagar town has not grown much during this time.

(2) **Khurai Municipal Roads.**—The length of Municipal roads in Khurai town is only 12.46 miles, which consists of 2.12 miles of tarred road, 0.066 miles of cement concrete, 5.083 miles of water bound mecadam, 3 miles of gravel and granular mixture and 2.20 miles unmetalled. The condition of these roads is not very satisfactory due to inadequate maintenance.

(3) **Bina-Etawah Municipal Roads.**—The twin-town of Bina-Etawah has got only 2 miles of roads in the municipal area, out of which the important ones are the road from Bina Railway Station to Etawah, with a length of one mile, and the link-road from Hazaria suburb to the railway goods shed having a length of 0.31 miles. The Bina-Etawah road is tarred while the other roads are made of bricks and stones.

In addition to these roads in Sagar district, a scheme was included in the Second Plan for constructing a net work of 12 jeepable roads in the district. These roads, having a total length of 167.75 miles were emergency roads which fall in the Banda tahsil of the district except for 12 miles which are in Khurai tahsil. These emergency roads were constructed to open up the dacoit-infested areas in the district, so that the anti-dacoity operations carried out by the Police may be facilitated. The list of these roads is given below: —

S. No.	Name of the Road	Length Miles	Km.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Banda-Bandri Road	22.75	36.61
2	Banda-Baraitha Road	24.00	38.62
3	Shahgarh-Baraitha Road	16.00	25.25
4	Hirapur-Indore Road	6.00	9.66
5	Shahgarh-Madanautala Road	6.00	9.66
6	Namagarh-Bamora Road	1 25	2.01
7	Gomatpur-Baraitha Road	10 00	16.09
8	Dalpatpur-Bara Road	13.00	20.92
9	Banda-Bara Road	16.00	25.75
10	Barodia-Dhamoni Road	12.60	20.12
11	Bandri-Jeruwakhera Road	15.25	24.54
12	Garpera-Dhamoni Road	25.00	40 23
	Total ..	167.75	267.96

Source.—Executive Engineer, P. W. D. (B. & R.), Sagar.

VEHICLES AND CONVEYANCES

The principal means of transport in the district are automobiles, bicycles, tongas, and bullock-carts. Of these vehicles the tongas ply mostly within the urban areas.

(1) **Automobiles.**—The total number of automobiles in the district registered up to 31st March, 1959 was 718, while in 1947 the

number was only 55. The table below gives their distribution under different categories:—

Number of Motor Vehicles Registered in Sagar District (From 1947 to 1959)

Year	Motor Cars	Buses	Trucks	Motor Cycles	Others	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1947	19	5	13	15	3	55
1948	21	3	22	12	4	62
1949	25	1	18	10	..	54
1950	9	4	25	6	5	49
1951	27	2	18	8	21	76
1952	18	..	7	2	4	31
1953	13	..	3	5	13	34
1954	11	1	3	3	7	25
1955	23	3	12	7	11	56
1956	24	2	23	9	10	68
1957	28	1	33	8	22	92
1958	20	3	22	18	9	72
1959	7	2	15	11	9	44

Source.—Secretary, Regional Transport Authority, Jabalpur.

(2) **Bicycles.**—Being the most economic means of transport the bicycle is the vehicle of the 'Common Man', and it has steadily spread from urban to rural areas. The total number of bicycles in the district registered with various municipalities on 31st March, 1959 was 4,415 as shown below:—

S No.	Name of Municipality	Number of cycles registered 1956-57	1957-58	1958-59
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	Sagar Municipality	1,687	1,895	2,339
2	Sagar Cantonment	1,182	1,298	1460
3	Khurai Municipality	73	99	84
4	Bina Municipality	292	312	232
	Total ..	3,234	3,604	4,115

Source.—Municipal Committees, Sagar District.

(3) **Horse-driven Tongas.**—They are the principal means of transport within the towns and their number has been increasing. The total number of tongas in the municipal towns of the district in 1958-59 was 237, distributed as follows :—

S. No.	Name of Municipality	Number of tongas registered		
		1956-57	1957-58	1958-59
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	Sagar Municipality	120	145	150
2	Sagar Cantonment	35	41	44
3	Bina Municipality	20	25	28
4	Khurai Municipality	14	11	11
	Total ..	189	222	233

Source—Municipal Committees, Sagar District.

(4) **Bullock-Carts.**—Much of the internal goods traffic of the district is still carried by bullock carts as many villages are away from the roads and inaccessible to other means of transport. Even for the bullock cart the approach to these villages becomes difficult in the monsoon, and it is not until the cold weather that the cart tracks dry up and the country side is opened to traffic. The carts in use are similar to those used in other parts of the State. They are light, springless carts and are used for carrying passengers as well as goods.

The total number of bullock-carts registered with the Municipalities in the district was only 400 in the year 1958-59. Except the Sagar Municipality and Sagar Cantonment, the other Municipal Committees, such as those at Bina, Khurai, Deori and Garhakota, do not levy tax on these vehicles. Therefore, it is difficult to ascertain the exact number of bullock-carts in the limits of these towns and other small villages of the district.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT

(a) **Private Bus Services.**—In Sagar district both the private and the State-owned public transport services ply side by side, in some cases, even on the same routes. The exact number of private buses is not known but it is estimated that there are about 100 such vehicles operating in the district.

(b) **State-owned Services.**—Sagar is a depot headquarter of the State-owned "Central Provinces Transport Services Limited" whose

head office is located at Jabalpur. A depot of the C.P.T.S. was established at Sagar in 1946 with only 4 vehicles. Prior to this passenger traffic was carried wholly by private licencees. The C.P.T.S. does not have a monopoly of passenger traffic and on certain routes the number of private vehicles exceeds the number of the State-owned buses. The total number of vehicles in 1959-60 in the Depot was 59 only.

NUMBER OF VEHICLES IN SAGAR DEPOT (C.P.T.S.)

S.No.	Year	Number of vehicles added	Total number of vehicles at the end of the year
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	1950-51	4	4
2	1951-52	7	11
3	1952-53	4	15
4	1953-54	5	20
5	1954-55	6	26
6	1955-56	11	37
7	1956-57	2	39
8	1957-58	6	45
9	1958-59	8	53
10	1959-60	6	59

Source General Manager, *C.P.T.S* Jabalpur.

It will be seen from the above table that during the 14 years of their services in the district the State-owned transport has expanded its activities about 15 times from 4 buses in 1950 to 59 buses in 1959-60.

Routes Operated.—At the end of July, 1963 the Sagar depot of C.P.T.S. operated its services on 23 routes out of the 95 routes operated by the organisation in the entire State. The list is given below: —

Name of the Route	Trips	Route Mileage	Service Mileage
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Sagar-Burman	4	66	528
2. Sagar-Deori	3	40	240
3. Sagar-Kesli-Tadas	1	55	110

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4.	Sagar-Rehli	1	26	104
5.	Sagar-Malthone-Ata	2	42	168
6.	Sagar-Hirapur	2	50	200
7.	Sagar-Banda	2	20	80
8.	Sagar-Hatta	1	72	144
9	Sagar-Damoh	2	48	192
10	Sagar-Garhakota	1	29	58
11	Sagar-Barodia	1	30	60
12	Sagar-Surkhi	3	18	108
13	Sagar- Bandri	1	17	34
14	Sagar-Vidisha	1	84	168
15	Burman-Tendukheda	3	15	90
16	Deori-Burman	1	26	52
17	Sagar- Sewas (Begumganj)	1	44	88
18	Sagar-Jabalpur	2	114	486
19	Sagar-Lalitpur	2	[illegible]8	272
20	Sagar-Jhansi	1	184	248
21	Sagar-Gwalior	1	187	374
22	Sagar-Tikamgarh	1	101	202
23	Sagar-Narsimhapur	2	84	336

Source.—Divisional Manager, C. P. T. S., Jabalpur

Traffic carried.—The C. P. T. S., has been operating its services in all directions in the district, and in some cases the bus routes run parallel to the railways. The service has considerably expanded and the passenger traffic borne by it has also registered a corresponding rise. The following table shows the position up-to-date :—

S. No.	Year	Service mileage	Passengers carried
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	1952-53	2,120	5,86252
2	1953-54	2,212	8,36,960
3	1954-55	2,612	8,18,513
4	1955-56	3,004	8,91,632
5	1956-57	[illegible],[illegible]64	9,27,424
6	1957-58	4,1[illegible]8	10,00,532
7	1958-59	4,9[illegible]	11,70,869
8	1959-60	[illegible],990	11,94,[illegible]00

Source.—General Manager, C.P.T.S., Jabalpur.

RAILWAYS

The Settlement Report of Saugor District for 1911-16 refers to the growth of railway communications, and says :—

"Railway Communications with outer world date from 1870 when the main Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Bombay to Jubbulpore was opened. The nearest station was Kereli in Narsinghpore district, 75 miles from Saugor and 22 miles from southern border of Rehli tahsil In 1889, however, the Indian Midland Railway line from Itarsi to Jhansi was completed, passing across the west of Khurai Tahsil. The branch line from Bina to Khurai and Saugor was opened in the same year and carried on to Damoh in 1895."[1] The Saugor-Damoh line was opened for traffic in March, 1898 and the line from Damoh to Katni was opened for traffic in January, 1899.

Railway Mileage

S. No.	Section	Mileage
(1)	(2)	(3)
		Miles
1	Saugor-Katni line	23.50
2	Bina-Saugor line	45.25
3	Bina-Jhansi line, (Mileage within Saugor district)	19.00
4	Bina-Itarsi —do—	10.00
5	Bina-Guna-Kota --do	15 00
	Total ..	112.75

Source —Divisional Superintendent, Central Railway, Jabalpur .

The railway mileage in the district is 112.75 miles all of which is broad gauge.

(1) **Saugor-Katni Section.**— The construction of this section was completed in two stages[2] :—

(i) Saugor Damoh Section was opened on 26th March, 1898 with a mileage of 47.83 miles.

(ii) Damoh Katni Section was opened on 1st January, 1899 with a mileage of 69.52 miles.

The total mileage of the Saugor-Katni section in the district is 23.50 miles. The outer station on this route is Ganeshganj which is 23.25 miles from Saugor. The other stations on this section are Makronia (5 miles), Lidhora Khurd (9 miles), Giswar (15 miles) and Ganeshganj (23.25 miles). The railway line passes almost

1. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911-16, p. 23.
2. History of Indian Railways, 1955, p. 32

through the centre of the district running parallel to the Saugor Damoh road, and through a fertile area.

(2) **Bina-Saugor Section.**—This section was opened for traffic on 5th June, 1889.

The total mileage of this section in Sagar district is 45·25 miles. This section is also a branch line of the Central Railway and connects Saugor to the trunk routes. *i.e.*, Delhi-Bombay and Delhi-Madras routes There are seven stations on this section namely, Bina (46 miles from Saugor), Baghora (40 miles from Saugar), Khurai (33 miles from Saugor), Sumreri (28 miles from Saugor). Jheruwakhera (22 miles from Saugor), Nariaoli (11.50 miles from Saugor) and Saugor.

(3) **Bina-Guna-Baran Section.**—The following table shows the progressive stages by which this section was opened:—

Section of the Railway	Date of opening	Mile	
(1)	(2)	(3)	
From a joint 32 D at mile 606, 457 at Bina to junction with Bina-Guna Baran Railway at mile 607 916	.	1.46	..
From the joint boundary of the Midland section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway and Bina-Guna-Baran Railway a point 2 0 miles from the centre of Bina Section to Guna	3-9-18[illegible]	71.71	..
From Centre of Guna Station (mile 216-3402 feet) to end of Baran Station (mile 290-28 0 feet)	1-[illegible]-1899	73 90	..

Source History of Indian Railways, 1955, p. 92.

This section falls under the jurisdiction of the Western Railway and its total mileage in the district is only 15 miles and station within this district is Semankhedi which is 9 miles from Bina.

Land was provided free of cost by the several Indian States for the portions of the railway in their respective territories. "The Bina Guna, Guna Dharnoda and Dharnoda-Chabra sections are owned by the Gwalior Darbar and Chabra-Baran section by the Kotah Darbar each of which provides funds for additional works, alterations in existing works not of the nature of repairs The railway was managed, maintained, stocked and worked by the late Great Indian Peninsula Railways as part of the Company's undertaking upto the 30th June, 1925 and, on termination of the contract, the line was brought under direct State management with effect

from the 1st July 1926."[1] As a result of the Federal Financial Integration the line came to vest in Government of India in April 1950 when it became an integral part of the former G.I.P. Railway system.

(4) **Bina-Jhansi Section.**—This section was opened for traffic on 1st January 1889.[2] The total route mileage of this section is only 19 miles and only two stations, Agsode (5.50 miles from Bina and 52 miles from Saugor) and Karonda (13 miles from Bina and 60 miles from Saugor) fall in this district.

(5) **Bina-Itarsi Section.**—This section which forms a part of Jhansi-Bhopal Section, was opened for traffic on 1st January, 1889.[3] The total length of this section in the district is only 10 miles. There are only two stations which lie in the district, Kurwai Kethora (6 miles from Bina and 53 miles from Saugor) and Mandi Bamora (10 miles from Bina and 57 miles from Saugor).

Amenities such as booking office, waiting hall and water supply for Railway Passengers.—The usual amenities that are provided by the Railway authorities are found in the railway stations in the district.

Bina being the most important railway junction in the district has, in addition to the usual amenities, three platforms for passengers and one for loading and unloading of goods. Booking for passengers at Bina is kept open for 24 hours. Some of these amenities are also provided at Sagar railway station. Waiting rooms are also provided at Khurai for all classes. Recently, Khurai railway platform has been raised and lengthened.

Passenger Traffic in Sagar district.—When the idea of constructing railways in Sagar first gained ground, it was considered that there would be little passenger traffic due to the poverty of the people and that the railways would derive their income mostly from goods transport. But, in actual fact, passenger traffic by rail has grown rapidly. Travel itself has become more popular, either on pilgrimages, or movement for employment. The greater the extension of the railway system the more marked has this movement been and the passenger traffic contributes to the business of the railways to a far greater extent than was anticipated. The move-

1. History of Indian Railways, 1955, p. 42.
2. *Ibid,* p. 30.
3. *Ibid.*

ment of passenger traffic has shown an upward trend in all the classes but it has been specially marked in the case of the third class of passengers.

Goods Traffic.—"In a country which is almost entirely agricultural, the principal traffic of the railways must necessarily be in goods. Before railways were laid in the district the cultivator derived little benefit from an abundant harvest. markets were confined to a small area and when the supply exceeded the demand, as it would in a good harvest, prices fell and he was deprived of profit from the larger yield and often found it economical to leave a part of this crop uncut. Railways have now altered these conditions. The improvement in communications has equalised prices of agricultural produce within reasonable distance from the railway. When harvests are abundant food stuff is no longer wanted for buyers, since the farmer has access to markets of the world. The development of goods traffic has been consequently more marked than the case of passenger traffic."[1]

(a) **Imports.**—The articles commonly imported into the district are grains, Sugar, oils and oil-seeds, articles used in building construction, drugs, medicines, spices, tobacco, cloth, metals etc. As seen from the table below the largest quantity of imports is at Saugor railway station, being 11,94,779 maunds in 1957 and 11,30,139 maunds in 1958

Figures in Maunds

Station	Years	
	1957	1958
(1)	(2)	(3)
Baphora	1,165	84
Khurai	1,05,284	1,19,816
Jeruwakhera	655	816
Nariaoli	353	263
Saugor	11,94,779	11,30,439
Lidhora-Khurd	152	358
Ganesh Ganj	13,635	24,102
	13,16,021	12,75,878

Source—Divisional Superintendent, Central Railway, Jubbulpore.

1 Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol: III, 1908, p 386

(b) **Exports.**—The table below depicts the details of exports during the same period as above The position of the exports seems to be identical with imports as the largest quantity of exports are from Saugor being 12,15,326 maunds in 1957 and 10,82,055 maunds in 1958:—

Exports (in maunds)

Station	Years 1957	1958
(1)	(2)	(3)
Baghora	13,591	15,774
Khurai	5,75,727	5,25,977
Jeruwakhera	70,613	50,872
Nariaoli	1,514	1,241
Saugor	12,15,326	10,82,055
Lidhora-Khurd	28	..
Ganesh Ganj	30,765	27,367
	19,07,362	17,30,292

Source —Divisional Superintendent, Central Railway, Jubbulpore.

Rail Road Co-ordination

Roads and Railways together have revolutionised the mode of transport, causing pack animals to be almost entirely displaced by vehicles throughout the greater part of the district. A feature of the road-rail traffic in Sagar district is that these two forms of transport provide a parallel means of passenger and goods movement between almost all the important centres of trade. For instance, the road traffic to Damoh and Jabalpur is almost parallel to the rail route. Nevertheless, there is little evidence of either of the methods of transport suffering from the competition. The railways have as much goods traffic as they can carry and the road transport is able to not only take long distance goods traffic of limited load. but also enjoys a monopoly in regard to the traffic from the interior places which are not connected by rail.

Influence of Railways on Road Construction

The construction of railways in the district exerted a considerable influence on the function and character of new roads. With the extension of the railway system in the adjoining district in 1870. it became more and more necessary to build roads in such a

way as to enable them to feed rather than compete with the newer means of communication and, thus, a greater demand for metalled roads has been felt. In 1823 Mr. Melony who was the Political Agent for the 'Saugor-Nerbudda Territories' when advocating an improvement in that portion of the Great Northern Road, which lay between Nagpur and Sagar, represented that the actual amount of local produce was in excess of consumption and for the prosperity of the country an easy communication for the exportation of the excess of the produce was indispensable. This remark states shortly the chief object with which the roads were generally constructed in the first half of the 19th century and as the harvest season coincided with the drying up of rivers there was not much need for bridges except on the great trunk-roads. While even on these, permanent bridges have not, even to this day, been provided over many of the larger rivers, where ferries or floating bridges serve their place. The majority of the roads were, therefore, merely embankments across low lying places with easily graded approaches to river banks and cleared and levelled up surfaces elsewhere.

Since the opening of the railway line in the district, circumstances have changed and there arose a demand for bridged and metalled roads which would give access to the railway line at all times of the year. In some cases, like the Sagar-Kareli Road and Sagar-Damoh Road, old routes have to a certain extent been superseded by railways as a means of through communication but on the whole, the influence of the introduction of railways in the district has been in the direction of stimulating progress of road construction and increasing the traffic to be carried.

WATER-WAYS FERRIES AND BRIDGES

(1) **Water-ways.**—The district is interspersed with numerous streams and rivers whose banks are covered with foliage of beautiful and varied trees forming a most picturesque scenery, yet for the purposes of navigation they are useless not only because they are remote from well populated areas but also because most of these rivers carry sufficient water only during the rainy season and it drains off in a few days. When they are in flood they are rendered unfordable. The notable rivers of district are the following:—

S No	Name of the river	Tahsil
(1)	(2)	(3)
1	Amavani	Sagar Tahsil
2	Beas	Do.
	Bina	Do.

(1)	(2)	(3)
4	Kanhan	Sagar Tahsil
5	Tilh	Do.
6	Betwa	Khurai Tahsil
7	Bewane	Do.
8	Bina	Do.
9	Parsai	Do.
10	Naren	Do.
11	Sunar	Rehli Tahsil
12	Gadheri	Do.
13	Dehar	Do.
14	Kopra	Do
15	Ken	Do.
16	Sakhoain	Do.
17	Jamner	Do.
18	Dhasan	Do.
19	Beas	Do.
20	Wakru	Do.
21.	Sitpat	Do.
22	Lanchan	Do.
23	Bel	Do.

Among these only the Sunar, the Beas, the Bina and the Betwa are important. Others are mere streams and deserve rather the name of large nullahs than rivers.

(2) **Ferries.**—There are in all seven ferries in the district. Two of these are in Sagar Tahsil, one plying at Tihar ghat on Sagar—Jaisinghnagar Road and the second at Lukharghat on Jaisinghnagar—Surkhi Road. Another ferry is situated in Rehli tahsil at Rehli across the Sunar River on Dhana-Surkhi Road. Two ferries are situated in Khurai Tahsil, one at Eran across the Bina River on Agasode-Khanjia Road and the second at Malaghat also across the Bina River on Khurai-Eran Road.[1] The remaining two ferries are situated in Banda tahsil, one at Mudia across the Beas river on Khurai-Agasode road and the second at Girarghat across the Dhasan on Khurai-Pithoria road. All these ferries are

1 Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 'B' Volume, 1906, p 49.

used for transhipment of vehicles and passengers during heavy rains when the rivers cannot otherwise be crossed due to the submergence of low bridges and causeways.

(3) **Bridges and Culverts.**—The road system in Sagar district is provided with a reasonably good number of bridges and culverts. The major part of the road mileage consists of fair weather roads which have been provided with bridges and causeways at many places, for even in the dry season there is some water in the rivers and the streams. The total number of bridges and culverts on important roads in the district is 806 as shown below. These bridges are repaired and maintained by the State Public Works Department:—

S. No.	Name of the Road	No. of bridges and culverts	Remarks
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Sagar-Nagpur Road	200	The traffic on these roads is held up for some hours during the heavy rains
2	Sagar-Jhansi Road	78	
3	Sagar-Kanpur Road	110	
4	Sagar-Damoh Road	29	
5	Sagar-Rahatgarh-Bhopal Road	107	
6	Sagar Khurai Road	81	
7	Sagar-Rehli Road	83	
8	Others	80	
	Total	806	

Source.—Executive Engineer P.W.D. (B&R), Sagar.

AIR TRANSPORT

The district is not linked regularly by air. But there is an air strip for occasional landing of light planes near Dhana village on the 11th mile of Sagar-Rehli road. Up to the year 1950 it was under the management and control of the Director of Military Land and Cantonments, Southern Command, Poona. In the year 1950 it was transferred to the State Public Works Department. The air strip is occasionally serviceable, and on advance intimation being received, it is cleared of gravel, bushes, etc., and put in a condition fit to receive small aircrafts.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES

(a) **Serais and Dharamshalas.**—No account is traceable of any old *serais* and *dharmshalas* in the district. However, in recent times,

many *dharmshalas* have been constructed by charitable trusts and philanthropic people for the convenience of travellers. In all there are 9 *dharmshalas* in the district out of which five are in Sagar town, namely Gendaji *Dharmshala*, Agrawala *Dharmshala*, Municipal *Musafirkhana*, Muslim *Kayamghar* and Modi *Dharmshala*. Besides there is one *Dharmshala* in each of the towns, Rahatgarh, Deori, Khurai, and Banda. They are maintained by the respective local bodies.

(b) **Rest Houses and Dak Bungalows.**—These are maintained in the district mainly by two departments (1) the Public Works Department and (2) the Forest Department.

Though primarily intended for affording staying facilities to various Government officials touring the district on duty, they are available to the public as well. There is only one circuit house in the district which is situated in Sagar town on the 1st mile of Sagar-Kareli road. In addition there are 19 rest houses at the following places maintained by the State Public Works Department:—

S. No.	Situation of the Rest House	Name of the Road	Situation
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Sagar	Sagar-Kareli Road	1st mile
2	Surkhi	Do	18th mile
3	Deori	Do	40th mile
4	Rehli	Sagar-Rehli Road	26th mile
5	Barodha	Do	15th mile
6	Pali	Sagar-Jhansi Road	23rd mile
7	Malthone	Do	20th mile
8	Khurai	Sagar-Khurai Road	33rd mile
9	Bina	Link Road from Bazaria to Bina goods shed.	1st mile
10	Si[illegible]a	Do	13th mile
11	Rahatgarh	Do	26th mile
12	Karrapur	Sagar-Karrapur Road	12th mile
13	Rorawan	Do	30th mile
14	Banda	Do	20th mile
15	Shahgarh	Do	43rd mile

(1)	(2)		(3)		(4)
16	Heerapur	..	Sagar-Kanpur Road	..	50th mile
17	Garhakota	..	Sagar-Damoh Road ..		27th mile
18	Patharia	..	Garhakota-Patharia Road	.	11th mile
19	Parsoria		Heerapur-Baxwaha Road	..	14th mile from Sagar

Source--Executive Engineer P.W.D (B & R) Sagar.

In addition to these P.W.D Rest Houses, the State Forest Department also maintains five Rest Houses and 10 Inspection Bungalows in the district. Rest Houses are situated at Ramna. Rangir. Gopalpura and Titarpani (all in Rehli tahsil) and the 5th Rest House is situated at Heerapur in Banda tahsil. Out of 10 inspection bungalows, 4 are in Sagar tahsil, 3 in Rehli tahsil and 3 in Khurai tahsil. In Rehli tahsil the inspection bungalows are situated at Padrai, Hinoti and Jhiriakhad. Khurai tahsil has inspection bungalows at Bandri, Jeruwakhera, and Malthone while in Sagar tahsil they are situated at Jaisinghnagar, Belkhedi, Rahatgarh and Shahgarh.

(c) **Encamping Ground.**—In addition to the above tourist facilities provided by the Government, some encamping grounds have also been marked at important places in the district for the facility of various departments. The following table shows the details of these : —

S. No.	Name of the place	Name of the Road	Distance from Sagar	Remarks
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
			miles	
1	Heerapur	Sagar-Kanpur Road	4.75	Govt property.
2	Parsoria	Heerapur-Baxwaha	13.25	Do
3	Garhakota	Sagar-Damoh ..	27.00	Private property on Sagar-Damoh Road-
4	Gambhiria .	Do	1.05	
5	Narwani .	Do .	6.00	
6	Mainpani ..	Sagar-Kareli ..	6.50	Private Praparty on old Sagar-Kareli Road
7	Chitora . ..	Do	10.00	
8	Surkhi ..	Do ..	18.00	

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9	Gourjhamar ..	Do ..	29.00	
10	Deori ..	Do ..	39 50	
11	Maharajpur ..	Do ..	47.76	Govt. property.
12	Ranipura ..	Sagar-Jhansi ..	.9.00	Do
13	Bandri ..	Do	19.00	Do
14	Rajwans ..	Do ..	27.00	Do
15	Malthone ..	Do ..	39.00	Do
16	Bhapel ..	Sagar-Rahatgarh ..	10.00	Do

Source —Central Province District Gazetteers, Sagar District, 'B' Volume, 1906

POST, TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES

Information regarding the early history and progress of the postal system in the district is rather scanty. The following account, however, deserves mention.

District Dak.—"Previous to March 1862, the Imperial Post Office sent letters for distribution to the Police Thanas, from that time 2 Jamadars at Rs 6, 31 peons at Rs 4 each were entertained, with contingent allowance at Rs. 60, making an annual total of Rs. 196. In June revised instructions were received, agreeably to which there are:—

13 Post Masters	at Rs 1 per mensem ..	Rs. 13
1 Jamadar	at Rs 8 per mensem ..	Rs. 8
13 Peons	at Rs 6 Per mensem ..	Rs. 78
28 Peons	at Rs 4 Per mensem ..	Rs. 112
Contingencies per annum		Rs. 200

Under this arrangement the district Post Office works well." 1

Present Working and Set-up.—On 31st March 1959, 135 post offices existed in the district comprising the head post office situated at the district headquarter, 18 sub-post offices, 103 branch offices (43 permanent and 60 experimental), one telegraph office and 12 combined Posts and Telegraph offices.

Both postal and Savings banking transactions are carried out at the head post office as well as at 87 other offices in the district.

1. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1867, p. 97.

In such post offices the following facilities for small savings are provided.

(1) Sale of gift coupons.
(2) Sale of 12 year National Plan Savings Certificates.
(3) Post Office Savings Bank.
(4) Sale of Government Securities.
(5) Sale of Prize Bonds.

The remaining 47 post offices handle mainly letters and parcels

Telegraphs.—The district is now well served with a wide spread system of Telegraph Offices. The total number of Telegraph offices is 13 out of which one is exclusively functioning as telegraph office and the remaining 12 are combined Posts and Telegraph offices The tahsil-wise distribution of these offices is shown below:—

S. No.	Tahsil	No of telegraph offices
(1)	(2)	(3)
1	Sagar ..	7
2	Rehli ..	1
3	Khurai .	4
4 ..	Banda	1
	Total ..	13

Source - Post Master, Head Post Office, Sagar.

Telephones—The total number of telephones in the district on 31st March, 1959 was 229 while in the year 1947 the corresponding number was only 38, which shows that the telephone facilities have been expanded during this period by as much as 600 per cent. The main telephone exchange is situated at Sagar. The tahsil-wise distribution of the telephones is as follows:—

S. No	Tahsil	No. of telephones installed
(1)	(2)	(3)
1 ..	Sagar ..	.. 179
2 ..	Khurai	.. 48
3 ..	Rehli . ..	.. 1 (P C O)
4 ..	Banda	.. 2 (P C O)

RADIOS AND WIRELESS STATIONS

There is no wireless or Radio station in the district. Radio receiving sets are becoming increasingly popular with the result that upto 31st March, 1959, 304 radio receiving licences were issued in the district.

ORGANISATIONS OF OWNERS AND EMPLOYEES

There is only one organisation of employees in the field of transport called "Rashtriya Motor Mazdoor Sangh".

It was established and registered in the year 1957. Its membership at the time of registration was 84.

It is affiliated with the Indian National Trade Union Congress.

There is no registered Union of Owners in the field of transport in this district.

CHAPTER VIII

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Pattern of Livelihood

The livelihood pattern in a particular tract or region depends on the availability of natural resources, climatic conditions, etc. The Sagar district being comparatively deficient in mineral resources and industrial raw materials, as also in the sources for development of power generation, the proportion of population dependent on agriculture and its allied activities is higher than that dependent on other sources of livelihood. In the year 1901, the proportion of population supported by pasture and agriculture was 65 per cent of the total population of the district. In the year 1951, out of the total population of 6,36,191 (excluding Damoh and Hatta tahsils of the district) the urban population was 1,23,433, while rural population was 5,12,758. Thus the rural population was 80.6 per cent of the total population in the district, and the urban population was 19.4 per cent. Out of 5,12,758 of rural population, 4,11,371 persons were dependent for their livelihood on agriculture while in the urban population of 1,23,433, the population dependent on agriculture was 13,206. Thus the total population dependent on agriculture in the district was 4,24,577, which works out to 66.7 per cent of the population of the district. This shows that during the period of 50 years, the livelihood pattern in the district, remained almost unchanged. The distribution of rural population dependent on agriculture according to different classes, as adopted in the 1951 Census Report was as under.—

	Agricultural Classes	Rural
I.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents.	2,61,102
II.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents.	20,566
III.	Cultivating labourers and their dependents.	1,19,633
IV.	Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents	10,070
	Total ..	4,11,371

As against this, the population dependent on sources of livelihood other than agriculture according to census classification of occupations was as under.—

V.	Production other than cultivation	47,679
VI.	Commerce	13,149
VII	Transport	6,677
VIII.	Other services and miscellaneous sources	33,882
	Total ..	1,01,387

The classification given above refers only to the rural population in the district which forms 80.6 per cent of the total population. The classification of the remaining 19.4 per cent of the urban population among the different categories. is given below.—

	Agricultural Classes	Urban
I.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents.	8,230
II.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents.	2,168
III.	Cultivating labourers and their dependents	2,044
IV.	Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents.	764
	Total ..	13,206
V.	Production other than cultivation	43,270
VI.	Commerce	25,870
VII.	Transport	10,291
VIII.	Other services and miscellaneous sources	30,796
	Total ..	1,10,227

The figures of population shown against each category above, both in urban and rural population, consist of (i) self-supporting persons, (ii) non-earning dependents, and (iii) earning dependents.

The persons listed in class VIII of the livelihood classification include also those who are not engaged in any productive activity.

The number of persons subsisting on different non-productive activities in Sagar district *according to 1951 Census was—

(a) Persons living principally on income from non-agricultural property.	188
(b) Persons living princially on pensions, remittances, scholarships and funds.	456
(c) Inmates of jails, asylums, alms-houses and recipients of doles	92
(d) Beggars and vagrants	1,136
(e) All other persons living principally on income derived from non-productive activities.	121
Total ..	1,993

The number of employers, employees and independent workers engaged in different industries and services, which are included in classes V to VIII are are as under.—

(1) Employers	1,923
(2) Employees	24,735
(3) Independent workers	52,445

In the year 1901 the total population of the district (Sagar, Khurai, Rehli, Banda) was 4,69,686; in the year 1951, *i.e.*, after 50 years the population of the district became 6,36,191. The percentage increase in population works out to 35·5 per cent over a period of half a century. But inspite of this increase in population, the percentage of population dependent for its livelihood on agriculture has changed but little. While in 1901, only 3,06,858 persons were dependent for their livelihood on agriculture, in 1951, the number was 4,24·577. This means that out of the absolute increase in the population of the order of 1,66,505 over a period of 50 years, nearly 1,17,719 was absorbed by agriculture while only the comparatively small number of 48,786 persons could be absorbed by other occupations in the district. The figures thus indicate that the pattern of livelihood in the district is predominantly agricultural.

The number of "workers"** in Sagar district in the year 1951 and 1961 was 4,86,897 and 3,76,415, respectively. Apparently, there is a fall in the number of "workers" in 1961 as compared to 1951 but this is due to the fact that 1951 figure is inclusive of

**Note* Includes the rural tract of Sagar, Banda, Rehli and Khurai tahsils and the urban tract of the whole district including Damoh.

***Note*.- Figures for "workers" in 1951 are worked out as per instructions contained in Appendix I to the Census of India, Paper No 1 of 1962.

the number of "workers" in the then Sagar district which included Damoh and Hatta tahsils. These were, however, separated in 1961. Taking the total population of Sagar in 1951 (including Damoh and Hatta), the percentage of "workers" to total population works out to 49 while for 1961 population the percentage of "workers" stands at 47.26.

It will be of interest to compare the sector-wise changes in the number of "workers" in 1951 and 1961. In the year 1951 the percentage of "workers" in agriculture to the total number of "workers" was 69.04, which had declined to 59.65 in 1961. There was a salutory increase in the percentage of "workers" in 1961 in industry as against 1951, the figures being 24.69 and 16.62, respectively. In construction activity the percentage was 0.85 in 1951 which had increased to 0.90 in 1961. There was, however, a slight fall in the percentage of workers in commercial activitiy in 1961 over that of 1951. The respective figures being 3.34 per cent and 4.53 per cent In transport and other services there was also increase in the percentage of "workers" in 1961 as compared to 1951. In the year 1951 the percentage of "workers" in transport was 1.56 and other services 7.39, the respective percentages in 1961 being 1 76 and 9.66. The above figures indicate shift in the pattern of livelihood from agriculture to other sectors in the economy of the district, though agriculture even now happens to be the mianstay of the livelihood.

GENERAL LEVEL OF PRICES

The price level of commodities and services is one of the important indicators of the economic condition of the people, though price level itself is dependent on a number of other factors like growth and decline of population, variation in the price of gold and silver, conditions of production, imports and exports, etc. Generally the prices fluctuate with the variations in seasons. For instance, during harvesting season the prices are comparatively lower than at any other time, but apart from such seasonal fluctuations prices everywhere have come to stay permanently at a higher level since the beginning of the present century because of the progressive decline in the purchasing power of the rupee.

All the important crops like wheat, rice, jowar, gram, linseed, sesamum, etc., are produced in the district but wheat is the staple food crop. At the beginning of the present century, *i.e.*, in the year 1900 the average retail price of wheat in the district was 10 seers a rupee. This was the highest price ever since 1891 except for the year 1897, which was a famine year when the retail price of wheat

was 8.2 seers a rupee. Price of rice in the district always remained at a higher level than wheat and it forms a part of the daily diet of the well-to-do people only. The average retail price of common rice in the district during the year 1900 was 9.9 seers a rupee. In the famine year of 1897 the price of rice was 6.9 seers a rupee as against 8.2 seers a rupee of wheat. The price of jowar in the year 1900 was 12.4 seers a rupee; while price of gram was 11.3 seers. After 1900 the prices of wheat and jowar reached the lowest level in the year 1903 when retail price of wheat was 15.2 seers a rupee. and jowar price was 29.7 seers. The price of rice was, however, the lowest in the year 1902, being 11.3 seers in 1902 as compared to 10.6 seers in 1903. Price of gram was also the lowest in the year 1903, *i.e.*, 29.7 seers a rupee. After 1903, the wheat price began to rise till 1908, the price in that year being 7.71 seers per rupee. Price of jowar, rice and gram also generally began to rise till 1908, but in the case of these other crops, there was no definite trend of rising prices noticeable as in the case of wheat. The reason for this general rise in the prices of food crops was the drought conditions all over the State in the year 1907-08. The seasons after 1909 were on the whole favourable and in the year preceding the beginning of the First World War, *i.e.*, 1913 the retail price of wheat was 11.77 seers a rupee; while wholesale harvest price was Rs. 3-13-0 per maund. The impact of the declaration of War in the year 1914 was immediately felt on the prices of foodgrains in the district as elsewhere. Retail price of wheat increased from 11.77 seers per rupee in 1913 to 9.23 seers per rupee in 1914, while wholesale harvest price of wheat rose from Rs. 3-13-0 to Rs. 4-8-0 per maund in 1914. Retail price of jowar rose from 14.43 seers in 1913 to 11.74 seers in 1914. Rise in the price of rice was slight, *i.e.*, from 6.91 seers a rupee to 6.64 seers while the price of gram increased from 15.07 seers to 10.14 seers. In spite of the War the prices of wheat, jowar, rice and gram decreased in the year 1916. This decrease was due to the propitious monsoon conditions, during all the War years after 1914. The years 1915-16 and 1916-17 had been good years especially for rice and wheat. Then came the year 1918-19 which recorded a failure of crop almost everywhere and scarcity conditions were declared. The whole district was also affected by an epidemic of Influenza. Retail price of wheat reached the level of 5.58 seers a rupee in the year 1919 as compared to the 10.12 seers in the year 1916. Retail prices of jowar and rice in 1919 were 6.07 seers and 3.92 seers a rupee as compared to the 16.86 seers and 8.39 seers, respectively, in the year 1916. Price of gram also increased from 11.94 seers in 1916 to 6.27 seers in 1919. The monsoon of 1920 was again poor and the early cessation of 1920 monsoon restricted

Autumn sowings, with the result that the spring crops of 1921 were very poor. In this year the district was also affected by Plague. The quantity of wheat pproduced in the year 1920-21 was 102.8 thousand tons as against 208.1 thousand tons in the previous year. The retail price of wheat in the year 1921, therefore, increased to 5.41 seers per rupee. The position of jowar and rice was comparatively better.

After 1920-21, however, prices began to fall. Wholesale harvest price of wheat which was Rs. 6-10-0 per manud in 1920-21 decreased to Rs. 3-13-0 per maund in the year 1923-24; retail price from 5.41 seers a rupee in 1921, to 9.20 seers a rupee in 1923. Retail as well as wholesale harvest prices of jowar, rice, and gram also followed suit. The prices, however, recovered slightly in the year 1928-29, the wholesale harvest price of wheat rising to the level of Rs. 6-6-0 per maund and retail price 6.57 seers per rupee. The price of jowar also increased a little in the same year but price of rice declined. After this flash in prices for a year, wheat prices continually remained at a lower level as the Depression became very marked reaching the bottom level, as it were, in the year 1934 when retail price of wheat was 16.4 seers a rupee, and wholesale price was Rs. 2-3-0 per maund. In the whole period from the year 1891 onwards the retail price of wheat had never been so low as in the year 1934, though the wholesale price of wheat had already reached the level of Rs. 2-3-0 per maund in the years 1930-31 and 1931-32 as also in 1935-36. Retail price of jowar was 23 seers and rice 11.62 seers a rupee in the year 1934. The period from 1928-29 up to the outbreak of the Second World War, 1938-39 was one of deepening trade crisis all over the world and its effects were noticed in the general fall of prices in the district also.

The story of prices after 1939 is one of scarcity conditions created by Second World War and consequent control and rationing of foodgrains. In the first year of the War the rise in general level of prices of foodgrains was comparatively small, and there was a tendency to consider this rise not wholly an evil, as it was expected to give to the agriculturists the advantage of higher prices for their produce. It was felt that having passed through the gloom of Depression for a number of years, the cultivator deserved to enjoy the benefit of better prices. The rise in the price of wheat in the year 1939 over the Depression period price in the year 1934 was slight, the retail price of wheat in the year being only 14.06 seers a rupee as against 16.14 seers a rupee in the year 1934. There was, however, an appreciable rise in the retail price of jowar, *i.e.*, from 23 seers a rupee in 1934 to 14.90 seers in 1939. The increase in the price of

rice was slight, *i.e.*, 9.70 seers a rupee in 1939 as compared to 11.62 seers in 1934. But the mood of complacency in this upward trend soon disappeared, and by 1941 it was generally recognised that some form of price control was inevitable. The control of wheat prices was the first step in this direction. The retail price of wheat in the year 1941 was 10 seers a rupee in the district. There was, however, a sharp increase in the price of rice owing to a shortage of supply. The price rose to 5.88 seers a rupee in the year 1941 as compared to 9·07 seers in the year 1939. In the year 1941 the maximum price of wheat in Sagar district was fixed at Rs. 5-13-0 per maund while retail price was fixed at Rs. 6-1-5 per maund and the Deputy Commissioner was empowered to fix the maximum if local prices showed a tendency to rise above this price. Inspite of these measures because of serious shortage of wheat in the country as a whole, there was steep rise (*i.e.*, by nearly 50 per cent) in the retail price of wheat in the year 1943 over what it was in the year 1942. The price of wheat in the year 1943 was 3.82 seers a rupee as compared to 7.0 seers in the year 1942. The price of rice was 3.75 seers in 1943 as compared to 5 seers a rupee in the year 1942. In the year 1943 price of jowar was 5.5 seers a rupee as against 7.3 seers in the year 1942. The serious rise in the price of wheat as compared to other foodgrains was mainly due to the absence of any price control on other foodgrains and the non inclusion of any provision in the Wheat Control Order of 1942 for the prohibition of inter-district movement or for the declaration of stocks by the licensed dealers to the Government. As serious difficulties such as the emergence of black market, submergence of stocks underground and the creation of artificial scarcity prevailed, in January 1943 price control on wheat was withdrawn. An upward spiralling in the prices was the immediate result accentuated, after the extension of the War to the eastern frontiers of India, by the Government policy of making heavy purchases in the market on military account as also on behalf of the British Government. These purchases were financed by continuous addition to paper currency and notes against sterling receipts. Monetary factors thus contributed in a large measure to the rise in price.

The Foodgrains Policy Committee, 1943, which examined the question of statutory maximum prices strongly recommended that statutory price control should be instituted for all major foodgrains in all the States and laid great emphasis on the point that one of the essential conditions for effective statutory price control was the existence of an adequate procurement machinery. In the year 1944, the

statutory maximum prices were fixed at a higher level for all food-grains, and this was accompanied by a progressive expansion of procurement and rationing. Thus a system of price control was evolved which covered transactions at different stages of marketing. Because of these measures by the year 1946 the Government had largely succeeded in stabilizing market price and it was decided to hold the controlled prices at the 1946 level in spite of the rise in the prices of imported foodgrains. The following Table gives whole-sale harvest prices of important foodgrains in Sagar from the year 1939 to 1947.—

(Rs. per maund)

Year	Wheat	Rice	Jowar	Gram
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Rs. As.	Rs. As.	Rs As.	Rs. As.
1938-39	2–5	3–8	1–11	2–10
1939-40	3–3	4–3	2–9	3–3
1940-41	3–4	5–6	1–12	2–8
1941-42	5–8	6–3	3–6	4–6
1942-43	10–0	11–6	6–12	10–0
1943-44	..	..	..	8–5
1944-45	9–12	13–0	7–11	7–7
1945-46	10–6	13–0	6–8	6–0
1946-47	10–8	9–4	7–0	8–8

Source.—Statistics of Rainfall, Area, Production and Trade of Agricultural Commodities in Madhya Pradesh, Vol. II.

The Table above makes it clear that the highest percentage of increase over 1939 prices occurred in the case of wheat, and as jowar was the next immediate substitute of wheat, the next highest increase was in jowar prices, *i.e.*, 354 and 314.81 per cent, respectively.

The period of decontrol was characterised by a general rise in the prices of foodgrains. An idea of this increase can be obtained from the wholesale harvest price of wheat in the year 1947-48, which was Rs. 29 per maund as compared to Rs. 10 per maund in the year 1942-43 when wheat was decontrolled. In the year 1947-48 rice was Rs. 14 per maund. Consequently on the resumption of controls in September 1948, procurement and issue prices were fixed at 25 per cent to 50 per cent above the rates in force prior to decontrol In the year 1949-50, Sagar was one of the major procurement districts for wheat and the procurement price of wheat in the same year was Rs. 14-8-0 per maund for ordinary variety. The wholesale harvest

price in the year 1948-49 was Rs. 18 per maund as against Rs. 14·8·0 in the year 1949-50. Thus it is clear that after the resumption of control in the year 1948 an attempt was made to stabilize the price of wheat at a rate nearly 45 per cent higher than what prevailed in the year of decontrol. i.e., 1943 when the price was Rs. 10 per maund. But stabilization at this level could not be achieved because in September, 1949 devaluation of the Indian rupee in relation to U. S. Dollar set in motion the inflationary pull on prices. Attempts were made to check the inflation of prices by effecting cuts in procurement prices by seven per cent to 15 per cent (*e.g.*, in 1950-51 procurement price was fixed at Rs 13-4-0 per maund) but in the middle of 1950, a fresh wave of inflationary pressure was generated by the boom in the commodity market following the outbreak of the Korean War in June, 1950 Prices of cereals took an upward turn also due to damage to crops as a result of a succession of natural calamities in certain parts of the country. As a result wholesale harvest price of wheat increased by about 27.58 per cent in the year 1950-51 over the preceding year 1949-50. The price in the year 1949-50 was Rs. 14-8-0 per maund while in 1950-51 it was Rs. 18-8-0 per maund. By the middle of 1951 a trend in the opposite direction began, and the wholesale price of wheat declined from Rs. 18.50 per maund in 1950-51 to Rs. 14.94 in 1951-52. Anti inflationary measures like raising of the bank rate on November 15th, 1951 from three per cent to three and half per cent and restriction on the supply of credit also contributed to the decline in prices. Recession became more pronounced in the first quarter of 1952. Prices of foodgrains moved down in sympathy with the break in the commodity market. Taking advantage of the recession in market prices of foodgrains and the weakening of the inflationary pressure the subsidy scheme was withdrawn from 1st March, 1952. The downward trend in the market prices continued. As a result there was a noticeable shift in demand from ration shops to the open market and an accumulation of stocks with the Government. The crop prospects for 1952-53 were also bright. In view of these favourable circumstances relaxations in control on foodgrains were initiated from the middle of June, 1952. As the downward trend in prices threatened to touch uneconomic levels ban on the inter-State movement of coarse grains was removed from 1st January, 1954 and the prices recovered slightly in the years 1952-53 and 1953-54

To summarize the trends in prices since the outbreak of Second World War, there was generally an upward movement in prices upto the end of 1943. From 1944 to 1947 there was a relative stability in prices. After 1947 due to decontrol sharp rise in prices was

witnessed. From the end of 1949 up to middle of 1950 the trend was again downward due to price reduction measures adopted by the Government. The year 1950-51 again saw a spurt in prices, till the year 1951-52 when, the gradual transition from the sellers' to buyers' market was noticeable.

Taking the year 1946-47 as the base the wholesale harvest prices of important foodgrains in the district are given below—

(Rs per maund)

Year	Wheat	Rice	Jowar	Gram
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Rs. Ps.	Rs. Ps.	Rs. Ps.	Rs. Ps.
1946-47 .. .	10 50	9 25	7.00	8 50
1947-48	20.00	14 00		11.0
1948-49	13.00	16.00	10.00	10.37
1949-50	14.50	16.00	13.12	11 00
1950-51	13 50	28.50	16.59	11.00
1951-52	14.94	19.50	11.31	11.69
1952-53	16.92	20.11	9.04	15.12
1953-54	15.56	15.50	8.25	10 37
1954-55	11 50	14.94	5 19	5 50
1955-56	14.75	12 81	6 56	10.00
1956-57 . ..	15.94	18 31	11.81	12.63

Source—[i] Supplement to Vols. I and II Statistics of Rainfall, Area, Production and Trade of Agricultural Commodities in Madhya Pradesh.
[ii] Statistical Abstract of Madhya Pradesh, 1958-59.

The trends in prices after 1951-52 are to be reviewed against the background of gradual relaxation of War-time control measures and planned efforts for economic development of the country. In September, 1959 quantitative restrictions on the issue of wheat to consumers and the trade were withdrawn and later in November, 1953 Government decided to decontrol wheat and coarse grains except for the retention of inter-State barriers on their movement. Coarse grains were completely decontrolled with effect from 1st January, 1954. Relaxations in control of wheat and rice were also made. Considerable growth in food production in the immediately preceding years led to a tendency for a fall in the prices of agricultural produce, which is reflected in the prices of the year 1954-55 of the statement above. As against this, there was a relatively lower fall in the prices of manufactured articles, with the result that the advantage of trade

turned against the agriculturists. Therefore, Government announced its decision to purchase foodgrains as a measure of price support. In the month of July, 1954, rice was completely decontrolled. There was a gradual relaxation of control on wheat, beginning with the formation of two zones in May 1954, i.e., the North and the West. Movement of wheat between the States in each zone was made free. Later in March, 1955, zonal restrictions on the movement of wheat were abolished altogether. The result of all these measures was a check on the downward trend in price level which is reflected in the prices for the year 1955-56.

The year 1955-56 was also the final year of the first Five Year Plan. Production of important food crops from the year 1950-51 to 1955-56 in Sagar district is given below.—

(In '000 tons)

Year	Wheat	Rice	Jowar	Gram
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1950-51	173.0	10.2	20.0	27.4
1951-52	108.7	23.0	27.3	25.3
1952-53	128.4	16.7	42.9	25.2
1953-54	129.4	26.9	80.2	22.8
1954-55	190.2	31.3	69.4	31.4
1955-56	115.3	7.4	14.5	17.7

Source.—Statistical Abstract of Madhya Pradesh, 1958-59.

During the plan period agricultural production showed striking improvement. Turning points came in 1953-54 and 1954-55 when production of all important foodgrains was at peak. These two years, therefore, were naturally the years of fall in the prices of the foodgrains. The Government measures to check downward trend of prices by guaranteeing the purchase of foodgrains at fixed prices, resulted in the check of downward trend in prices at the beginning of the Second Five Year Plan, *i.e.*, in the year 1956-57.

In the year 1957-58, *i.e.*, the second year of the Second Five Year Plan, there was a decline in the agricultural production owing to unfavourable climatic conditions and failure of rainfall. Consequently the trend in prices was on the whole on increase as compared to 1956-57. In Sagar district, however, there was a marked rise in

Note—Figures from 1950-51 to 1954-55 in the Table are inclusive of Damoh.

the wholesale price of rice, while the prices of wheat, jowar and gram declined. This can be explained by the fact that the fall in the production of wheat from 126.3 thousand tons in 1956-57 to 84.7 thousand tons in 1957-58 was partly offset by an increase in production of jowar from 6.6 thousand tons in 1956-57 to 19.1 thousand tons in 1957-58. There was a definite fall in the production of rice from 5.1 thousand tons in 1956-57 to 3.1 thousand tons in 1957-58.

The position in respect of the production of foodgrains in the district considerably improved in the year 1958-59 but there was an increase in the price of foodgrains because of the propensity to purchase with a view to hoarding and stockpiling on the part of both the consumers and stockists. But for the timely measures taken by the State Government for conserving and augmenting the existing food resources such as Interzonal Wheat Movements Control Order, 1957, the Wheat (Regulation of Use in Roller Mills) Order of 1958, etc., the situation of supply and price might have been very serious. Notwithstanding the efforts of the Government to keep down price levels within reasonable limits, prices of foodgrains reached higher levels in the year 1958-59 over the previous years. Statements showing the production and prices of important foodgrains in the district from 1956-57 to 1960-61 are given below.—

(In '000 tons)

Year	Wheat	Rice	Jowar	Gram
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1956-57	126.3	5.1	6.6	13.7
1957-58	84.7	3.1	19.1	7.5
1958-59	125.0	6.0	33.2	15.0
1959-60	148.3	5.6	32.5	9.2
1960-61	164.3	10.9	26.7	12.9

Source.—Statistical Abstract of Madhya Pradesh, 1958-59 and 1961-62.

(Rs. per maund)

Year	Wheat	Rice	Jowar	Gram
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1956-57 .	15.94	18.31	11.81	12.63
1957-58	13.97	22.50	8.00	8.81
1958-59 . ..	17.03	15.33	13.24	17.39
1959-60	13.66	17.95	9.88	11.24
1960-61 ..	12.83	19.48	9.56	12.08

Source.—Statistical Abstract of Madhya Pradesh, 1958-59 and 1961-62.

The position regarding production of foodgrains and consequently regarding prices was much easier in the First as compared to the Second Plan period. Improvement in food production in the Second Plan period is visible from 1958-59 at least in respect of wheat which is a staple foodgrain of the district. The rise in prices for wheat, jowar and gram was arrested.

WAGE LEVEL

The pattern of livelihood in the district is predominantly agricultural and according to the economic classification, next to the Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned, the Cultivating Labourers are numerically the largest. Beside agricultural labour, there are others like Carpenters, Blacksmiths, Potters, Barbers, Tailors and Mochis in the rural areas, who derive their livelihood indirectly from agriculture. There was a time when all these persons in the rural areas used to be paid for their services in kind at the time of the harvesting season annually. But the times have changed and the village as an economically self-sufficient unit is becoming rare, except in the very backward regions; and the payment for services in kind has given place to the payment in cash. The Agricultural Labour Enquiry in India presumed that the rise in prices of foodgrains since the Second World War and the system of procurement by the State Governments should have also influenced considerably the mode of wage payment in agriculture, *i.e.*, from kind to cash wage payment. Whatever be the reasons, everywhere in rural areas there is a preference for receiving wages in cash though payment in kind is also prevalent. According to the Agricultural Labour Enquiry, 1950-51, in the Central India-zone, in which the Sagar district falls, 45 per cent of total wage days were paid for in cash; 43 per cent in kind and 11 per cent of wage days were paid for both in cash and in kind.

Of all the different professions in the rural areas the services of the village Carpenter and village Blacksmith are the most essential to agriculture. As mechanization of agriculture is not within the means of individual agriculturist, he depends for his implements and tools necessary for agricultural operations, on the village Carpenter and village Blacksmith. Hence, along with agricultural labour, the wages of these two types of workers form an essential part of the statement of rural wages.

At the beginning of this century, *i.e.*, in the year 1900 the normal wage of an agricultural labourer in Sagar district was Rs. 5 per month, while the Carpenter and the Blacksmith got, on an average, Rs. 12-8-0 a month. These rates rose gradually in the first decade of

the century, so that at the beginning of the First World War, in 1914. the wages of the agricultural labourer stood at Rs. 6 a month. The wages of Blacksmiths were not recorded during this period because most of them said to be working not on wages but on piece-work basis in their own shops. When the First World War ended, the wages had further increased, the agricultural labourer getting Rs. 7-8-0 a month in 1919. which further rose to Rs. 12 by 1921 while the Carpenter's wages were Rs. 25 a month in that year. The onset of the depression in the early 'thirties pushed down the wages of the agricultural labourer, which in 1934 were only between Rs. 3 and Rs. 4 a month, while the wages of the artisan class, including the Carpenters and Blacksmiths fell to Rs 11 from Rs. 15 a month. It is significant that 1934 was also the year in which the prices of wheat, jowar and rice touched the lowest level. In the next two years while the wages of the artisan class, the Carpenters and Blacksmiths, picked up, the wages of the agricultural labourer continued to be stationary.

With the outbreak of the Second World War there was a general rise in wages from the year 1941, which corresponded to the spurt in prices of foodgrains in the district. This general rise in wages continued steadily during the years of the War, and by 1944 the level of wages of agricultural labourers varied from Rs. 18-12-0 to Rs. 37-8-0 p.m. The wages of Carpenters rose to between Rs. 45 and Rs. 60 p.m Similarly, the wages of Blacksmiths reached the level of Rs. 37-6-0 to Rs. 60 p.m. The monthly wages in rural areas of the district from 1939 to 1946, *i.e.*, during the Second World War period are given below—

Year	Able-Bodied Agricultural Labourer	Common Carpenter	Common Blacksmith
	Minimum Maximum	Minimum Maximum	Minimum Maximum
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Rs	Rs	Rs
1939 ..	3 to 5	20 to 30	30 to 30-8-0
1940 ..	3 to 5	20 to 25	30 to 35
1941 ..	4 to 6	25 to 30	35 to 40
1942 ..	6 to 8	30 to 45	40 to 45
1943 ..	11-4-0 to 18-12-0	22-8-0 to 45-0-0	22-8-0 to 45-0-0
1944 ..	18-12-0 to 37-8-0	45-0-0 to 60-0-0	37-6-0 to 60-0-0
1945 ..	22-8-0	30 to 45	30 to 45
1946 ..	30 to 37-8-0	45 to 60	45 to 60

Source—Saugor District Gazetters Vol., B

From the above figures it is seen that the highest percentage increase was in the case of the wages of the common agricultural labour during the War period, as compared to the artisan classes. This remarkable increase can be partially explained as being due to the rise in the cost of living, and of the increase in prices of food-grains, as also due to the demand for common labour elsewhere on higher wages on account of War-time works. In the years following the termination of the War the upward trend in the wages in rural areas persisted. The common agricultural labourer whose wage rate per day in the year 1946 ranged from Re. 1 to Rs. 1-4-0 was paid Rs. 1-4-0 to Rs. 1-8-0 per day in 1948. The ploughman whose monthly wage in 1946 was Rs. 18 to Rs. 20, earned Rs. 25 to Rs 30 per month in the year 1948. The village Carpenter and village Blacksmith earned wages ranging from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 3 per day in 1948, as compared to Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2 per day in the year 1946. This upward movement in wages in 1948 can be linked with the rise in the prices of foodgrains consequent upon the fixation of higher procurement prices and re-control is September, 1948. The Table below shows the trend of the wage level for certain classes of rural workers during the period 1950 to 1955.—

(In Rs. per day)

Class of Labour	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Village Blacksmith.	2-8-0 to 4-0-0	2-8-0 to 4-0-0	2-0-0 to 4-0-0	2-0-0 to 3-8-0	3-0-0 to 3-8-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0
Village Carpenter	2-8-0 to 4-0-0	2-8-0 to 4-0-0	2-4-0 to 3 9-0	2-0-0 to 3-8-0	3-0-0 to 3-8-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0
Ploughman	1-0-0 to 2-0-0	0-14-0 to 2-0-0	1-0-0 to 1-14-0	1-0-0 to 1-8-0	1-0-0 to 1-8-0	1-4-0 to 1-8-0
Per month	20 to 35	23 to 40	30 to 40	25 to 30	30- 0-0	35 to 45
Other Agricultural Labour, Men	1-0-0 to 2-0-0	1-0-0 to 2-0-0	1-0-0 to 1-8-0	0-12-0 to 2-0-0	1-0-0 to 1-8-0	1-0-0 to 1-8-0
Women ..	0-14-0 to 1-12-0	0-12-0 to 1-8-0	0-12-0 to 1-4-0	0-12-0 to 1-8-0	0-12-0 to 1-0-0	0-12-0 to 1-0-0

Source.—Statement of Rural and Urban Wages.

It is found from the above Table that there was a general fall in the level of wages in the year 1953. This drop in the wage level

might be related to the better crop conditions in the district during the year 1952-53. However, a higher level was again reached in the subsequent years 1954 and 1955.

Trend in wage level for the subsequent years in the district was as under—

(In Rs. per day)

Class of Labour	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960
Village Blacksmith ..	2.75	2.75	3.00	3.00	3.00
Village Carpenter ..	3.00	3.25	3.00	3.00	3.00
Other Agricultural Labour					
Men	1.12	1.12	1.25	1.50	1.50
Women	0.87	0.87	1.00	1.25	1.25

Source.—Daily Wages of Agricultural and Rural Labourers, Directorate of Lands Records, Government of Madhya Pradesh.

The figures above indicate that after 1955 the level of wages of skilled workers like village Blacksmiths and Carpenters in the district have remained unchanged at about Rs. 3 per day. There is, however, a gradual upward trend noticeable in the wages of common agricultural labourer. The wages of female labourers generally remained at a lower level. On a study of the wage rates for different classes given in Tables above it would appear that the wages of the common agricultural labourer are tending to get stabilized at the wage level of the year 1946, while the wages of skilled workers are stabilizing at 1954 and 1955 level of wages.

In the year 1939, the common labourer in Sagar town earned a daily wage of annas 4 to 5, as compared to Re. 0-1-6 to 3 annas earned by his counterpart in the rural areas. Wage rates of skilled workers like Carpenters and workers in iron and hardware in Sagar town were Re. 0-12-0 to Re. 1 and Re. 0-12- to Rs. 1-4-0, respectively in 1939; while wage rates of village Carpenters and village Blacksmiths were 6 to 12 annas and 6 to 8 annas, respectively. The year 1946, which was the year immediately following the end of Second World War, the wage rate of common labourer in Sagar was Re. 1 to Rs. 1-8-0 per day; while in the rural areas it was Re. 1 to Rs. 1-4-0 per day. Taking the low level wage of Re. 0-4-0 as the basis for urban worker in 1939, his wage in 1946 stood at Re. 1 (lower level), which shows an increase of about 300 per cent; while from the minimum of Re. 0-1-6 in 1939 to Re. 1 in 1946 in case of common agricultural labourer the increase in wage rate is of the

order of 900 per cent and above. This suggests a tendency towards bridging the gap that existed between wage levels in rural and urban areas. The comparative wage rates of skilled and unskilled workers from the year 1946 to 1955 in rural and urban areas were as under —

(In Rs. per day)

Year	RURAL			URBAN		
	Carpenters	Blacksmiths	Other Agricultural Labour	Carpenters	Workers in Iron and HardWare	Common Labourer
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1946 ..	1—8—0 to 2—0—0	1—8—0 to 2—0—0	1—0—0 to 1—4—0	2—4—0 to 3—0—0	2—0—0 to 2—12—0	1—0—0 to 1—8—0
1948 ..	1—8—0 to 3—0—0	1—8—0 to 3—0—0	1—4—0 to 1—8—0	2—8—0 to 3—0—0	2—8—0 to 3—0—0	1—0—0 to 1—8—0
1949 ..	2—8—0 to 3—0—0	2—8—0 to 3—0—0	1—0—0 to 1—8—0	2—8—0 to 3—0—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	1—0—0 to 1—8—0
1950 .	2—8—0 to 4—0—0	2—8—0 to 4—0—0	1—0—0 to 2—0—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	1—2—0 to 1—8—0
1951 ..	2—8—0 to 4—0—0	2—8—0 to 4—0—0	1—0—0 to 2—0—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	1—0—0 to 1—8—0
1952 .	2—4—0 to 3—8—0	2—0—0 to 4—0—0	1—0—0 to 1—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	1—2—0 to 1—8—0
1953 ..	2—0—0 to 3—8—0	2—0—0 to 3—8—0	1—12—0 to 2—0—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	1—2—0 to 1—8—0
1954 .	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	1—0—0 to 1—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	1—2—0 to 1—8—0
1955 ..	3—0—0 to 4—0—0	3—0—0 to 4—0—0	1—0—0 to 1—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	3—0—0 to 3—8—0	1—2—0 to 1—8—0

Source.—Statement of Rural and Urban Wages.

One significant feature in the statement above is that there were greater year-to-year fluctuations in the wage rates in rural areas as against urban areas. Another point of some significance is that during some years the maximum wage rates in rural areas for skilled and unskilled labourers were higher than in urban areas. For example, the wages for skilled workers in rural areas reached a maximum of Rs. 4 per day during the years 1950, 1951, 1952, and 1955: while in urban areas the wages never reached this level during all these years. Similarly, the common agricultural labourers received a maximum of Rs. 2 per day during the three years, *viz.*, 1950, 1951 and 1953, while a maximum daily wage of Rs. 1-8-0 remained constant in the case of common urban labourer from 1946 to 1955.

While fixing the minimum wages in different Scheduled Industries under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Government laid down the minimum wages for skilled and unskilled labour in rural and urban areas. For example, the wages in bidi industry in Sagar town proper for rolling 1,000 bidis were Rs. 1.31 in the year 1956 while for all other municipal towns in the district and for all other places within 10 miles radius of Sagar the minimum wages were Rs. 1.25 per 1,000 bidis. These rates were, however, revised as from 1st January, 1959 and were fixed at Rs. 1.62 for Sagar town and places within 10 miles radius of the town, and at Rs. 1.44 in all other places. The wage rates in oil mills were fixed at Rs. 1.25 in the year 1956 but revised later in the year 1959 to Rs. 1.75 for unskilled labour. Wages in *dal* mills were fixed at Re. 1 per day in 1956, for adult male unskilled labourer, but were revised in the year 1959 to Rs 1.75.

Though there is some variation in the minimum rates of wages in the Scheduled Industries in urban and rural areas, they are generally lower in the rural areas of this district as elsewhere The wages for unskilled workers in agriculture and industries also do not vary significantly.

Standard of Living

The pattern of living in the district is essentially rural and agricultural. One of the tahsils in the district, *i.e.*, Banda, has no urban population at all. The percentage of rural population to the total according to 1951 Census was 80.6. The population dependent on agriculture for livelihood was 66.7 per cent of the total. Amongst the agricultural population of the district, Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents were numerically important, forming 61.9 per cent of the population dependent on agriculture.

Next numerically important class was of Cultivating Labourers and their dependents forming 28.5 per cent of the agricultural population. The standard of living of the major section of the population in the district is, therefore, dependent on the conditions of agriculture. Agriculture in the country as a whole is notorious for its dependence on the vagaries of the monsoons. Consequently, between seasons of good harvest and bad harvest, standard of living of the families of cultivators varies considerably. In this context it has been said in the Agricultural Labour Enquiry, that "it was the necessity to subsist that guided their expenditure and there was hardly any problem of preference as regards goods and services on which money should be expended". Agricultural economy in the country is thus largely one of a subsistence economy, and what is true of the country as a whole is also true of Sagar district

In the absence of any family budget enquiry either into the conditions of living of agricultural, industrial or middle class working families in the district the task of depicting a clear picture of the standard of living of the different classes of the population in the district is difficult. One can only attempt to deduce the general conditions in the district from the data obtained in the enquiries conducted on all India basis at the State or regional levels

The district forms a part of the wheat zone in the State. The soil of the district is of loose texture with admixture of limestone. The average annual rainfall in the district is about 45 to 50 inches, and wheat is the most important crop in the district. The numerically important class of agricultural population consists of owner-cultivators and the All-India Rural Credit Survey (1950-51) found the share of different classes in the total area of cultivated holdings as 42.6 per cent of big cultivators; 73 per cent of large cultivators; 20.4 per cent of medium cultivators and 6.6 per cent of small cultivators According to the same survey the proportion of indebted families, among these four classes of cultivators was 88.5 per cent big cultivators; 94 per cent large cultivators; 95.9 per cent medium cultivators and 80.7 per cent small cultivators.

The Enquiry further leads into the classification of borrowings for different purposes as a corollary of indebtedness and gives that 14.5 per cent of the borrowings were for current expenditure on farm: 24.8 per cent was for capital expenditure on farm; 26.3 per cent was for family expenditure; 4.3 per cent for other expenditure and 30.1 per cent was non-farm business expenditure.

The comparatively high percentage of the borrowings on account of family expenditure, would indicate that "when even the cost of

bare necessities of life cannot be met from the meagre income, the labourer resorts to borrowing, facilities for which are also extremely limited owing to his slender resources". The Rural Credit Survey gives the cash receipts from different sources for the upper and lower strata of cultivators in the district as under.—

Cash Receipts from Different Sources

Upper Strata of Cultivators

		Rs.
1.	Sale of crops and fodder	275.9
2.	Sale of milk and milk products	30.1
3.	Sale of poultry and poultry produts	0.1
4.	Sale of seed and plants	9.2
5.	Sale of manure	0.6
6.	Cash wages	144.0
7.	Carting	6.4
8.	Cash rent	16.8
9.	Interest	47.9
10.	Other sources	0.6
	TOTAL	531.6

Cash Receipts from Different Sources

Lower Strata of Cultivators

		Rs.
1.	Sale of crops and fodder	28.2
2.	Sale of milk and milk products	3.5
3.	Sale of poultry and poultry products	..
4.	Sale of seeds and plants	..
4.	Sale of manure	..
6.	Cash wages	326.7
7.	Carting	42.5
8.	Cash rent	..
9.	Interest	..
10.	Remittances	0.1
11.	Other sources	..
	TOTAL	401 0

The two important sources of income for the upper strata of agriculturists are (1) sale of crops and fodder; and (2) cash wages; and for the lower strata (1) cash wages; and (2) carting. Thus whenever

there is a failure of crops the agriculturist can neither have crops to sell nor can he earn his livelihood by selling his labour. Other relevant figures having a bearing on the standard of living of the cultivators are the following.—

		Rs.
1.	Average expenditure per family on clothing, shoes, bedding, etc.	191
2.	Average medical expenses per family	33
3.	Educational expenditure per family	4

Next numerically important class after the Cultivating Owners, amongst the agriculturists of the district is of Cultivating Labourers. The Government of India, Ministry of Labour conducted an Agricultural Labour Enquiry during the year 1950-51. For puroses of the Enquiry. the State of Madhya Pradesh. was divided into three zones, *viz.*, Cotton-jowar zone, Wheat zone and Rice zone. The district falls in the Wheat zone of the State. In the absence of any family budget enquiry for Sagar district, the data regarding the condition of agricultural labour for Wheat zone in the Report. are taken as a basis for assessing the standard of living of Agricultural Labourer in the district The position of the Agricultural Labour in Wheat zone can generally be taken as indicative of the conditions of labour in the district.

The agricultural labourers are classified into Attached Workers and Casual Workers. The Attached Worker is more or less in continuous employment throughout the period of contract, but there is no uniformity in the terms of the contract of Attached Workers even within a village. Each worker enters into a contract with his employer which lays down his tenure and terms of employment taking into account his skill. his economic position and his personal relations with the employer.

The conditions of work and wages of Attached Workers cannot be directly compared with those of Casual Workers. Unlike the Casual Workers. the wages of Attached Workers are fixed for a definite period and are not generally subject to variation according to the seasonal type of work or seasonal demand for labour. Secondly, the Attached Worker has not the same extent of insecurity of employment as has Casual Worker.

From the point of view of the standard of living. it may be worth while to know that the average annual income per family of agricultural labour (both Attached and Casual) for Wheat zone was Rs. 497. Expenditure per family was Rs. 527, comprising Rs. 523 towards consumption expenditure and Rs. 4 on ceremonies

The proportion of expenditure on food was stated to be higher in Wheat zone as compared to other two zones, being 91.8 per cent of the total expenditure. This unusually high percentage expenditure on food speaks of the poor standard of living of the people. In the Cotton-jowar zone of the State which is industrialized, the percentage expenditure on food was 85.8 per cent of the total expenditure indicating a comparatively higher standard of living. The statement of the different items of expenditure in Wheat zone of the State is as under.—

Items	Average annual expenditure	Percentage to total annual expenditure
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	Rs.
Food	480.1	91.8
Clothing and footwear	25.0	4.8
Fuel and lighting	2.7	0.5
House rent and repairs	0.7	0.1
Services and miscellaneous	14.5	2.8
TOTAL ..	523.0	100.0

Further break-up of the annual expenditure of the food item into the different cereals consumed is.—

	Rs.
Rice	59.3
Wheat	120.9
Gram	24.7
Birra (mixture of wheat and gram) ..	50.7
Jowar	50.2
Kodo-Kutki	16.2
Maize	5.7
TOTAL ..	327.7

Expenditure on the consumption of different pulses under food item is of the value of Rs. 109·7 per family annually. The price of rice in the district being generally higher, as compared to wheat, rice does not enter into the daily diet of the labouring classes. They consume rice only occasionally, while it forms a part of the regular diet of only the well-to-do classes. Even wheat, a major food crop of

the district is taken in a mixed form known as birra by the agricultural labourers. Birra is a mixture of wheat and gram. Expenditure on medicines and education, does not enter into the family budget of the agricultural labourers. In spite of these omissions in the satisfaction of the bare necessities of life, the average annual expenditure exceeds the annual income. Several villagers engage themselves in bidi making, as a subsidiary occupation. In the year 1958, there were 32 bidi factories in the district registered under the Factories Act. 1948, employing on an average 1.415 workers daily. Besides these registered factories there are a large number of feeder factories, where workers are employed by contractors to prepare a specified number of bidis as against the quantity of tobacco and *tendu* leaves supplied to them. The minimum wage for bidi making per 1,000 bidis is fixed in the district. In Sagar town the minimum wage is Rs. 1.31 while in all other municipal towns the wage rate is Rs. 1.25.

Besides the two major groups, *viz*., (1) Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and (2) Cultivating Labourers, there is also a third class of the Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents. whose standard of living is similiar to that of the two other classes of people dependent on agriculture. There is also another class, *i.e.*, Non cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers. constituting only 10,834 persons in the rural and urban areas of the district. The standard of living of this class is similar to that of the upper strata of cultivators.

There remains the population dependent on sources of livelihood other than agriculture, such as (1) production other than cultivation, (2) commerce, (3) transport and (4) other services and miscellaneous sources The total population—rural and urban—falling under these four classes is of the order of 2,11,614, which is 33.3 per cent of the total population of the district. This population is divided into the categories of "employers", "employees" and "independent workers" as follows.—

	Employers (1)	Employees (2)	Independent workers (3)
Rural	160	11,471	21,721
Non-city Urban	1,763	13,264	30,724
TOTAL ..	1,923	24,735	52,445

NOTE.—Figures regarding rural population are exclusive of Damoh and Hatta Tahsils. For non-city-urban population, the figures for Damoh and Hatta could not be separated.

The economic status of the "employers" is presumed to be higher than that of the "employees" and the "independent workers" but a higher economic status does not always result in the person enjoing a higher standard of living. Moreover, "employer", according to the definition adopted for Census purposes, meant a "person who had necessarily to employ another person or persons in order to carry on the business from which he secured his livelihood". Under this broad term even persons of very limited means would be classed as "employers", if they had to engage one or two assistants.

The salary earning class can be broadly divided into employees in the State, and Union Government service; employees in the Local Bodies and private services. In view of the differences in the pay-scales of the employees working under these different bodies, the economic status of these three categories of employees differs from one another; and consequently their standards of living also differ. It is a well known principle of economics that any rise in the cost of living primarily affects the people with fixed incomes. Consequently the rising cost of living these days has affected the standard of living of the salaried classes adversely. The Minimum Wages Advisory Committee for the employment under Local Authorities appointed by the State Government in 1959 found that "the workers in the lower categories had, on an average, been spending about 15 per cent more than their earnings" and concluded therefrom that the "cost of living had definitely gone up". The Committee decided to increase the then existing minimum wage rates roughly by 10 per cent so as to "lift the wage level of the employees to the minimum standard of subsistence" but not to guarantee any standard of living.

An "independent worker" has been defined as a "person who is not employed by any one else and who also does not employ any one else in order to earn his livelihood". It has been observed from the figures above that the number of "independent workers" is nearly double than that of the "employees" in the district. The ratio of independent workers to employees according to Census Report was 6.6: 3.1 in the rural parts and 6.6: 2 in the urban areas. The Census Report explains this high ratio of "independent workers" being common in the district where the bidi making is very prominent. Bidi industry in Sagar is an important industry, providing employment to a large number of workers than any other industry in the district. This means the majority of "independent workers" are bidi workers, whose irreducible minimum wage is guaranteed.

GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT

The data presented in connection with the pattern of living and miscellaneous occupations elsewhere in this Chapter shows the level of employment in different occupations in the district. So far as the level of employment in different industries in the district is concerned, it is the highest in bidi industry. Out of the total 42 factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948, in the year 1958 as many as 32 were bidi factories. The daily average employment in all the registered factories in the district was 1,880 in the year 1958, out of which employment in bidi industry was 1,115. Next in importance as far as the level of employment is concerned, is printing and lithography which provided employment to about 160 workers daily in the same year.

From amongst the cottage industries handloom weaving occupies an important place. In the year 1951 there were 1,751 handlooms in the district and employment in small-scale textile establishments of cotton spinning, sizing and weaving and woollen spinning and weaving was 925. (This figure is exclusive of the rural population of Damoh and Hatta tahsils but includes the non-city urban population of those tahsils.)

The data collected under the Employment Market Information Scheme which was launched in the district in the quarter ending 31st December, 1960, reveals that from the industrial point of view the district lags behind other important districts in the State. The labour supply for the employment market in the district is drawn from the agricultural areas in the district as well as from the nearby districts.

The employment trends for the quarter ending 31st December, 1960 indicated a slight improvement in the level of employment in the private sector of industries. The number of employees with the 176 industrial employers (out of 190) was 3,176 persons at the end of December, 1960 as against 2,991 persons at the end of the preceding quarter. The following Table gives in brief the shift in

employment position in industries and services in private sector as on 30th September, 1960 and 31st December, 1960.—

Classification of Industries	Private Sector No. of reporting establishments	No. of Employees		Increase/ Decrease
		As on 30-9-1960	As on 31-12-1960	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Agriculture, livestock, forestry, fishing, etc.	1	17	17	..
2. Manufacturing industries.	94	1,362	1,399	+37
3. Construction ..	7	295	390	+95
4. Electricity, gas, water and sanitary services.	1	93	92	—1
5. Trade and commerce	42	257	267	+10
6 Transport, storage and warehousing.	3	41	38	—3
7 Services (Education, Medical, Religious and Welfare. Recreational and personal and other services only).	28	926	973	+47
TOTAL ..	176	2,991	3,176	+ 185

The main sectors which contributed to the rise were manufacturing industries. the construction activities and the services division. In manufacturing industries there was a rise in employment in printing and publishing, manufacture of wood and wooden products and manufacturing of food stuffs.

The employment in construction industry registered a significant increase, because of the construction work undertaken on Government account.

The volume of employment in the public sector for different divisions of industries as on 30th September, 1960 and 31st December, 1960 is given below.—

Classification of Industries	Public Sector No. of reporting establishments	No. of Employees		Increase/ Decrease
		As on 30-9-1960	As on 31-12-1960	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Agriculture, livestock, forestry, fishing and hunting	3	357	384	+ 27
2 Manufacturing ..	2	57	74	+17
3 Construction ..	2	301	300	—1
4. Electricity, gas, water and sanitary services.	1	277	282	+5
5 Trade and commerce	3	69	73	+4
6. Services	82	6,746	6,819	+73
TOTAL ..	93	7,807	7,932	+125

The main increase in employment in public sector was contributed by employment in public services in administrative departments and offices of the State Government. The next important increase was under the Local Bodies.

Comparing the employment trends in private and public sectors as shown in the above Table, it is seen that in the private sector there are greater employment opportunities under construction activities, while in the public sector, services under the State Government administrative departments offer greater employment. Manufacturing industries in the private sector provide better employment facilities than the manufacturing industries in the public sector. But this increase in employment is of a seasonal nature.

Some idea of the shifting of population from agriculture to industries can be had from the percentage figures of population dependent on agriculture in 1901 which was 65 per cent of the total population and 66.7 per cent of the total population in 1951. While out of the absolute increase in the population of the order of 166,505 from 1901 to 1951 nearly 117,719 persons are dependent on agriculture, only 48,786 are dependent on industries, commerce, transport and other services. Since the percentage of population dependent on agriculture in 1951 was 66.7 as against 65 in 1901 it can be concluded that there is no major shift of population from agriculture to the other sectors. On the contrary it can be said that with the growing population, the pressure on agriculture has increased, in the absence of any noticeable growth in the industrial sphere of the economy of the district.

One exception is the bidi industry. In this connection the Bidi Labour Re-adjustment Committee appointed by the former Government of Madhya Pradesh in the year 1947 enquired into the question of the shifting of agricultural labour to bidi industry. The Deputy Commissioner of Sagar informed the Committee that, "without a proper census it will be difficult to find out the proportion of the agricultural labourers to the non-agricultural labour is engaged in bidi industry. I however calculate the percentage of 10 per cent of agricultural labourers engaged in bidi industry." In describing the position of bidi industry in the district *vis-a-vis* agriculture the Deputy Commissioner stated that "A good deal of the prosperity of the districts like Saugor is dependent on the bidi industry. In spite of the total failure of wheat crop in this district during the last year only one scarcity camp was opened at village Besra in the Khurai tahsil. This camp did not attract as many labourers as normally it might have mainly because of the presence of the bidi industry."

If in the year 1947 the percentage of agricultural labour in bidi industry was 40 then with the increase in the number of bidi establishments in 1958 this percentage, should have increased appreciably.

Employment Exchange ... ...

The Employment Exchange service was started in the Sagar district in the month of July, 1957 The Employment Market Information Scheme for public sector was launched in the year 1958 and the Employment Market Information Scheme in private sector was introduced in the district from the quarter ending 31st December, 1960. The figures regarding registrations and placings at the Employment Exchange, Sagar from the year 1957 onwards are given below.—

	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Registrations ..	715	1,481	2,133	2,047	2,789
Placings .	73	96	194	252	274

The vacancies notified to the Employment Exchange by different agencies like the Central and State Governments, quasi-Government and Local Bodies and others were 215 in 1958, 755 in 1959, 537 in 1960 and 642 in 1961 The number of vacancies filled by these different agencies were 86, 184, 245 and 253 for the respective years.

The services of the Employment Exchange were generally found to be utilized by the Central and State Governments and Local Bodies.

NATIONAL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

With the introduction of the First Five Year Plan at national and State level, coordinated schemes for the development of the acti vities of nation building departments like Agriculture, Irrigation, Education, Co operation and Public Health, etc., were started under the Community Development and the National Extension Service Schemes.

The first Community Development Block was started at Rahatgarh in Sagar tahsil on the 2nd October, 1953 covering 213 villages. On the 1st April, 1954, two more Blocks were started at Rehli and Khurai covering 258 and 188 villages, respectively. The National Extension Service Blocks were started at Banda and Deori

on the 1st April, 1954, and the 1st April, 1956, covering 180 and 242 villages. The two Blocks at Rahatgarh and Rehli were originally started as N.E.S. Blocks but were later converted into Community Development Blocks on the 1st April, 1956. The Community Development Block at Khurai was also originally a N.E.S. Block but was converted as C.D. Block on the 2nd October, 1956. As on the 1st November 1956 all these C.D. and N.E.S. Blocks covered an area of 1,580.00 sq. miles, with a population of 2,67,367. During the year 1957-58, one more N.E.S. Block was started at Shahgarh (Amarmau) in Banda tahsil on the 2nd October, 1957. This Block covered 126 villages with an area of 201.3 sq. miles and population of 36,573. On the 1st April, 1958, one more Block was started at Jaisinghnagar in Sagar tahsil covering 139 villages with population of 42,481, and area of 283.30 sq. miles. The old distinction of N. E. S. and C. D. Blocks was discontinued vide notification of the Planning and Development Department issued on 30th August, 1958, and new classification of Pre-extension, class I and class II Blocks was adopted instead to indicate stages of development activities.

S. No.	Tahsil	Name of Block Stage	Date of establishment	No. of villages	Area in square miles	Population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	Sagar	Rahatgarh II	[illegible]	[illegible]	320	49,000
2	Rehli	Rehli II	1-4-54	2[illegible]	310.7	72,547
3	Khurai	Khurai II	1-4-54	188	292.1	45,539
4	Banda	Banda (Shahgarh) II	1-4-54	150	31[illegible]	55,818
5	Banda	Amarmau I	2-10-57	126	201.3	36,573
6	Rehli	Deori I	1-4-56	2[illegible]	310.4	44,463
7	Sagar	Jaisinghnagar I	1-4-58	139	283.3	42,481
8	Rehli	[illegible] I	1-4-60	191	244.0	39,675
9	Rehli	Kesli P.E.	1-4-61	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
		Total		1,547	2,308.6	3,86,096

Thus from the year 1953 to April, 1961 there were nine Blocks covering 1,517 villages in the district with a population of 3.86 lakhs.

The expenditure up to 31st March, 1958, and for the subsequent years up to 1960-61 is given below.—

(Rs. in Lakhs)

Name of the Block	Upto 31-3-58	During 1958-59	During 1959-60	During 1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Rahatgarh	4.53	3.36	1.58	1.00
2. Rehli	6.62	2.69	1.53	0.79
3. Khurai	5.33	2.00	1.51	0.75
4. Barda (Binaika)	4.27	3.02	1.27	1.07
5. Deori	1.52	1.75	1.62	0.78
6. Amarmau . ..	0.73	1.37	1.48	1.22
7. Jaisinghnagar	..	0.80	0.80	1.11
8. Malthone		..	..	0.15
9. Kesli ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A

The overall picture of the achievements of the different nation-building departments, under the Five Year Plan in the district are set out below.—

Agriculture.—During the year 1950-51, *i.e.*, before the introduction of the Five Year Plan, the gross cropped area in the district (excluding Damoh) was 9,74,207 acres, which has increased to 11,21,519 acres during the year 1956-57. The production of wheat, which is the staple crop of the district, amounted to 1,20,300 tons, in the year 1949-50, which included the production in Damoh district also. As a result of the efforts under the Grow More Food Campaign and implementation of the First Five Year Plan, the production of wheat (excluding that of Damoh) was 126.3 thousand tons in the district. Similarly, there was also an increase in the production of other cereals and pulses. Among the pulses, the production of tur which was 1,000 tons in the year 1949-50, (including Damoh), increased to 2,500 tons in the year 1956-57 for Sagar district, (excluding Damoh). Taking the year 1953-54 in the First Five Year Plan period as the normal year in respect of the production of foodgrains (as the year has been adopted as base year for purposes of Index Number), during the Second Plan period production of wheat had risen in 1959-60 and 1960-61. The production of rice, jowar and gram had, however, not recorded any rise over the year 1953-54 in the district.

Animal Husbandry.—Under the Five Year Plan schemes a model programme for veterinary and animal husbandry development was introduced in the Block Development areas in Sagar district in 1959. By working this programme, appreciable progress was made in the improvement of livestock and poultry. The district has at present five veterinary hospitals at Sagar, Khurai, Rehli, Banda and Nariaoli. In addition there are ten outlying dispensaries at Deori, Bina, Kesli, Sahajpur, Garhakota, Shahpur, Jaisinghnagar, Khimlasa, Dhama and Mandi-Bamore. Another outlying dispensary was opened in 1960 at Baratha.

Fisheries.—With the opening of an office of the Assistant Fisheries Development Officer at Sagar in 1960 work on pisciculture was started on a scientific basis at Ratona Tank, Sagar.

Forestry.—The district has a forest area of 7,30,636 (1960-61) acres. The preservation and scientific working of these forests have been included in the development plans. The provision for this purpose in the Third Plan is of the order of Rs. 9.38 lakhs.

Health and Rural Sanitation.—There are 13 dispensaries in the district. A provision of Rs 1,36,750 was made in 1959-60 to start three Family Planning Centres at Rahatgarh, Khurai and Banda, besides the maintenance of the one Family Planning Clinic at Rehli. The three Primary Health Centres and nine village dispensaries continued to work in the district. An amount of Rs. 3,49,000 was provided for the year 1960-61. The total number of Primary Health Centres in the Block areas in the district from 1953-61 was 15. Under the programme of sanitary drinking water supply 139 drinking water wells were constructed and 164 drinking water wells were renovated in all the Block areas up to 31st March, 1961. Two hand pumps were installed in the Khurai Block area during the year 1959-60.

Education.—In the sphere of pre-primary education at the initiation of the First Five Year Plan, i.e., in the year 1951, there was one Balsadan, with two teachers and 53 students in the district. By the end of 1961, the number of institutions increased to 11 with 621 students and 29 teachers. During the period 1947-1961, the number of primary schools increased from 205 to 402 and the number of students from 18,066 to 31,303. After 1947, the progress of secondary education has also been encouraging. In 1961 the district had 47 middle schools, two high schools, 17 higher secondary schools and one multipurpose higher secondary school.

By the end of 31st March, 1961, 128 literacy centres were started in all the Block areas in the district, and about 4,696 adults were made literate. The number of reading rooms and libraries started in all the Block areas in the district were 187 by the 31st March, 1961.

Co-operation.—At the beginning of the First Five Year Plan there were 81 agricultural credit and 30 non-agricultural credit societies in the district including Damoh. Co-operative credit activities increased rapidly during plan period with the result that the agricultural and non-agricultural credit societies numbered about 358 by the 30th June, 1958. This figure includes five large size agricultural credit societies, 318 small size and 35 non-agricultural credit societies. Four marketing credit societies were started in the district at Khurai in 1958, at Sagar and Deori in the year 1959, and at Rehli during the year 1960. The total number of co-operative credit societies in all the eight Block areas was 369 on the 31st March, 1961.

Industries.—During the year 1960-61 an amount of Rs. 1,45,000 was provided for the industrial development of the district which included provision for the training of 10 students in shoe making. The centre is located at Sagar.

Panchayats.—There were 321 Gram Panchayats and 56 Nyaya Panchayats in the district in the year 1958. In the final year of the Second Five Year Plan, *i.e.*, 1960-61 a provision of Rs. 97,292 was made for establishing 200 Panchayats in the district. In Amarmau Block area 25 village Panchayats were established during the year 1959-60 and 1960-61. Two Village Panchayats were established in Jaisinghnagar Block area in the year 1959-60.

The impact of these National Planning and Community Development activities in providing certain amenities and facilities hitherto not available to the people in rural areas is tangible. It is also a fact that the improvements have come through active participation of the people though it is difficult to ascertain actual quantum of people's participation.

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

Other chapters have dealt with the principal sectors of the economy of the district in which the major part of the working population is engaged. A significant proportion of the population, however, has been left unaccounted for from the point of view of occupations such as those engaged in miscellaneous occupations like public administration, the learned professions, such as education, law, medicine, engineering and religious, domestic services, etc. Some of the miscellaneous occupations relate to the supply of various services, such as, milk supply, tailoring, hair-dressing, laundering, and restaurant and hotel keeping. In the 1951 Census these persons have been included in the livelihood class "Other services and miscellaneous

sources" and 64,678 persons including their dependents have been enumerated out of the total of 6,36,191 persons in the area comprising the Sagar district (excluding Damoh and Hatta tahsils in the district). Thus this census class forms above 10 per cent of the total population.

In the field of public administration including municipal and local (not village) services the following Table depicts the trends of expansion in the different categories:—

Service	No. 1911	No. 1931	No. 1951
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Police	813	970	1,137
Service of State and Union Governments.	550	948	2,744
Municipal and Local (not village)	250	393	785
Village Officials including Village Watchmen.	1,690	1,090	1,460
Total ..	3,313	3,401	6,126

This trend of increase in the number of persons engaged in public administration has continued as in the year 1961 there were 1,530 constables, administrative and executive officials of the Central Government 1,943, of the State Government 212, administrative and executive officials of Local Government and Quasi-Government bodies 25 and village officials 661. Besides these administrative and executive officials, clerical and related workers of all types numbered 5,479. Most of the persons engaged in public administration whether employed by Government or a Local Body, belong to the middle and lower middle class with only a few persons in a higher income group. They enjoy certain benefits in the shape of cost of living allowance, medical allowance or medical reimbursement facility and, in a few cases, official residences. The old Madhya Pradesh Government had begun a scheme for giving fixed annual allotments to each district for construction of residential buildings for its employees and under the scheme one Tahsildar's quarter, two Naib-Tahsildar's quarters and five class II officers' quarters were built. The class III and IV State Government servants are organised into Unions. From

time to time the State Government have revised the pay-scales of all Government servants with a view to offer relief from the rising cost of living.

With the establishment of the Saugar University in 1946, and the policy of the Government regarding the spread of education, there has been a considerable rise in the number of persons engaged in educational and research activities at various levels. The figures for this class of persons for 1911, 1931 and 1951 were 570, 592 and 1,525, respectively. This increase still continues and in 1961 the number of Teachers in the University, Higher Secondary Schools, Middle Schools, Nursery and Kindergarten Schools, and others reached a figure of 2,271. The Saugar University is at present engaged in considerable building activity and it is expected that the University and its staff will be fully housed in the new site which is being developed on an elevated site just below the Sagar Municipal Water Works Filtration Plant and overlooking the Sagar Town and lake. Apart from this, at the pre-University stage all school teachers are being given the benefit of cost of living allowances as also provident fund benefits The Government has also initiated a scheme for the construction and provision of residential accommodation for all women teachers in girls schools in the rural areas.

Like teaching profession, the profession of Architects, Engineers, etc. are of national importance in the present day context of the planned economic development. Government are making efforts to train increasing number of persons in technical professions. In the year 1961, there were 81 civil engineers including overseers. 12 mechanical engineers, 10 electrical engineers, 10 surveyors and 23 others in the district.

The number of persons associated with the profession of law in the district had been 141, 120 and 345 in 1911, 1931 and 1951, respectively. These figures include advocates, pleaders, attorneys, clerks and petition writers, etc. Law appears to be a thriving profession with increasing new entrants every year. This can be seen from the fact that legal practitioners alone numbered about 70 in the year 1961. There is a District Bar Association which provides its members with a law library at Sagar. Most of the lawyers are in Sagar town, but there are also sizeable numbers of them at Rehli and Khurai.

In the field of medicine the number of persons classified under medical and health services in the 1951 Census was 588. This number includes medical practitioners, midwives, vaccinators, compound

ers and nurses also and thus, indicates the inadequency of the medical aid in relation to the total population of the district. With the advent of the Community Development Programme, together with their associated primary and subsidiary health centres, the various schemes for rural medical and health services and also the virus eradication programmes the situation is gradually improving. Most of the medical men in the district are general practitioners and there are very few specialists. A good number of them are members of the District Medical Association, which is affiliated to the State Association. In the year 1961 the physicians, surgeons and dentists in the district numbered 336. This figure comprises 88 physicians and surgeons in Allopathy, 173 Ayruvedic, and 23 Homoeopathic medical practitioners besides dentists and others. Besides these, nurses, midwives, pharmacists and other medical and health technicians were 552. The total comes to 888. Roughly, the increase in the number of those following medical profession is 300 over a period of 10 years, *i.e.*, from 1951 to 1961 In the year 1951 this gave the proportion of about 1,082 persons and in 1961, 897 persons for one medical professional which included the pharmacists etc., and not necessarily a doctor.

The authors, editors, journalists and other related workers numbered 17; musicians, dancers and other related workers were 330 in the district in 1961.

Religion as a profession has been on a gradual decline in the district. The figures of workers in religious, charitable and welfare services had been 3,679 in 1911, 1,057 in 1931 and 662 in 1951. These figures include priests, monks, sadhus, religious mendicants, nuns, servants in burial and burning grounds, pilgrim conductors, etc.

The number of persons in other services and professions besides the above such as those who deal in retail trade of milk, dairy products, sweetmeats, slaughter houses, foodstuff, fodder, various drinks, beverages and narcotics, pan shops and the like, numbered 6,743 in 1951. Comparable figures for 1911 and 1931 were 8,815 and 5,946, respectively. In the year 1961 the working proprietors in wholesale and retail trade numbered 8,590.

The number of tailors in the district was 1,757 in 1911, 1,108 in 1931 and 2,108 in 1951. In 1961 the tailors and cutters numbered 2,418. A good number of tailors carry on their business in the rural areas. Laundry services accounted for 4,073 persons in 1911, 2,086

in 1931 and 1,156 in 1951. In 1961 the laundrymen, washermen and dhobis in the district were 1,602. The number of persons following the profession of barbers and hair-dressers was 2,223 according to the 1951 Census figures. The comparative figures for previous Census were 3,364 in 1911 and 2,734 in 1931. In 1961, the barbers, hairdressers and beauticians numbered 1,652.

Coming to the category of domestic servants, in 1911 this category consisted of 8,293 persons, in 1931 there were 4,294 persons while in 1951 the number was only 1,880. In 1961, house-keepers, cooks, waiters, ayas and maids numbered only 986. The fall in the number may be partly due to the development of bidi making as a cottage industry which gave a lucrative opening to many who formerly sought private domestic service Besides this the disruption of joint family system, increasisg cost of living, economic reforms like abolition of zamindari and malguzari, etc, have not only made the services of domestic servants superfluous but also uneconomical.

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CHAPTER IX

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION ...

The pattern of administration, as it has emerged in the Sagar district, is derived from the days of the British rule It has been noted earlier but ever since the Saugor Nerbudda territories were ceded to the British in 1818 their administrative arrangements had been frequently changing, shifting back and forth between the North-Western Provinces and direct administration under the Supreme Government First of all, the Saugor territory was placed under the Superintendent of Political Affairs of Bundelkhand, while the districts on the Nerbudda were under the charge of a Commissioner, and controlled by the Resident at Nagpur In 1820 these territories were combined and placed under an Agent to the Governor-General for the Saugor Nerbudda territories with headquarters at Jabalpur, but after the constitution of the North-Western Provinces in 1835, they were placed under the general supervision of the Lieutenent-Governor of these provinces. This arrangement continued until 1842 when, in consequence of the disturbed condition that prevailed after the Bundela rising the general control over these territories was vested in a Commissioner and Governor-General's Agent while the supervision of fiscal and judicial affairs remained with the Sadar Revenue Board and Sadar Court of the North-Western Provinces at Agra In [illegible] the general management of these territories was once again entrusted to the Government of the North-Western Provinces under which it continued up to the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861[1]

For purposes of revenue administration, the Saugor-Nerbudda territories were divided into eight districts (including the Sagar district). the district officer being first called Superintendent and later Deputy Commissioner The district was further divided into parganas (tahsils), each under a Tahsildar. The district officer was also in charge of police functions, in which he was assisted by Tahsildars, Village Patels and Watchmen The police of the town was managed by a Kotwal, and detached *chowkis* were established where any particular circumstance called for such a step. The District Officer also exercised magisterial powers of inflicting imprisonment for two years.[2] For the administration of civil justice, all the eight districts

1 J F Dyer, Introduction to the Land Revenue and Settlement System of Central Provinces, 1924, p 1

2 R M Bird, Note on the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, 1834, pp 10-11.

of these territories had one Judge and under him were a body of Principal Sadar Amins. Sadar Amins and Munsiffs[1]. It appears, however, that all was not well with the administrative system of these territories as may be deduced from the observations of Mr. R. M. Bird, Member, Sadar Board of Revenue, North Western Provinces, who wrote in 1834 that there was no general uniformity of administration in these territories, "each district being managed according to the particular fancy of the officer in charge and the entire territories at the mere discretion of the Commissioner"[2]

On their formation, the Central Provinces were divided for administrative purposes into four divisions (one of them being the Sagar Division) each controlled by a Commissioner, with districts headed by Deputy Commissioners. Under this set-up, the Sagar district formed part of the Sagar Division until 1863-64 when, on the abolition of this Division, the district was included in the Jabalpur Division. This position continued until 1948 when the posts of Commissioners were abolished. The Commissioner, besides being responsible for the general administration of the division, was also the Sessions Judge and Civil Judge of Appeal in his charge. During the decade that followed the formation of the Central Provinces, separate departments of Settlement and Land Records, Police, Jail, Education, Medical, Public Health, Forests, P.W.D., Registration, Excise, etc., were organized in the Province from time to time. The head of each of these departments was usually assisted by a departmental officer in charge of a district or a group of districts. The unit of administration continued to be the district, the Deputy Commissioner holding its executive charge. Besides being the chief revenue collector, he was also the chief magistrate of the district and could try all cases not punishable with death. His original civil jurisdiction was unlimited in amount and he heard appeals from his assistants up to Rs. 1,000. He had under him practically all the services within his area. Although each district had its own police force commanded by a Superintendent, who was responsible to the Inspector-General of Police in matters of discipline, etc., the head of the district police was the Deputy Commissioner in his capacity as the District Magistrate. In medical matters the Deputy Commissioner had the services of a Civil Surgeon who as a rule, also held the executive charge of the District Jail. Further, in control of education he was assisted by a Inspector of Schools. There was a Divisional Forest Officer in charge of forests. In matters requiring engineering knowledge, he was assisted by the Executive Engineer

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces. 1873-74, Pt. I, p. XXI.
2. R. M. Bird, op. cit., p. 5.

of the Division. In addition, the Deputy Commissioner had a host of other functions to perform, e.g., he acted as marriage registrar, he was *ex-officio* president of all municipalities in his district; he headed the local agencies for the management of roads, ferries, encamping grounds, public gardens, etc. The Deputy Commissioner was assisted in the revenue and general administration of the district by Assistant Commissioners and Extra-Assistant Commissioners, who also tried judicial cases within the limits of their powers.

Next below in the scale of the executive authority stood the Tahsildar (then also known as Sub-Collector) looking after the administration of a tahsil. He exercised civil, criminal and revenue powers and was assisted in his work by a Naib-Tahsildar. The Tahsildar was also the Sub-Registrar for his charge. At the time of the thirty-year settlement (1864-65) the Sagar district was divided into four tahsils, *viz.*, Sagar, Khurai, Rehli and Banda, a division which continues till this day. At the village level the Tahsildar was assisted in his revenue work by a Patwari (village accountant). It may be of interest to note here that the thirty-year settlement of the district, the Patwari was given the position of a servant or agent of the Malguzar, the latter having been made responsible for the maintenance of village records. The Patwari's remuneration was made up of contributions made by the Malguzar at a certain percentage on the land revenue and by the tenants of a certain fee on their rental. Besides these money payments, the Patwari enjoyed some perquisites such as patches of rent-free land, donations of grain at harvest time and small money payments from tenants for writing receipts and other documents.[1] The system of maintenance of village records by Patwaris through Malguzars, however, proved to be unsatisfactory and, therefore, by a reform under the Land Revenue Act of 1881, the Patwaris were gradually brought under the control of Government, so that by the time the settlement of 1911-16 took place in the district, they were in receipt of a grade pay from the Government.[2] The work of the Patwaris was supervised by a staff of Revenue Inspectors with a Superintendent (of the status of a Tahsildar) and an Assistant Superintendent of Land Records over them.

No change took place in the system of district administration until 1877-78 when an important step was taken to clarify the position of the Deputy Commissioner in relation to the various branches of the administration in the district. It was noticed that Heads of

1. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1887—97, p. 64.
2. *Ibid*, 1911—16, p. 65

Departments often issued important orders to their local officers, of which the Deputy Commissioner, had no knowledge. In the Police Department, his position as head of the district police was not adequately recognised. In all departments correspondence not infrequently passed on matters affecting the public, which the Deputy Commissioner never saw and on which he had no opportunity of expressing an opinion. The result was that his grip of the district started getting loose. In order, therefore, to make him an effective head of district administration, it was laid down by the Government in 1887-88 that the Deputy Commissioner must be regarded as the head of the district administration in all departments. It was also decided that he should be kept informed of all questions concerning the other departments other than matters of a professional nature or of a mere departmental routine, so that he might have an opportunity of expressing his opinion on them It was further indicated that the Government would judge the fitness of Deputy Commissioners for the charge of districts and for promotion very largely by their success or failure in the direction and control of the district organization as a whole.[1]

The principle of recognizing the Deputy Commissioner as the head of the district administration in all branches applied as well to the judicial as to the other departments. But at the same time the policy of relieving him as much of his civil work as possible was kept in view, the ultimate aim of the Government being the separation of the judiciary from the executive. A beginning was made in this direction in 1887 by the appointment of Civil Judges and Munsiffs, who relieved the Deputy Commissioners and Tahsildars respectively of a portion of their civil judicial work. The decade that followed witnessed many changes in the direction of the separation of the department administering civil justice from the executive department. Notable among them was the appointment of four Divisional Judges (who were also Sessions Judges) who relieved the Commissioners of all civil and criminal work. Further, the Deputy Commissioners were relieved of all civil work and the courts of the Civil Judges were declared not to be subject to their control or supervision.[2]

No other change was made until 1904 when the sub-divisional system was introduced in districts. Under this system, Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners were placed in charge of one or more tahsils and given powers of a Sub-Divisional Magistrate in criminal

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1887-88, p. I/I.
2. *Ibid*, 1901-02, p. XI.

matters and with certain exceptions, under the various revenue laws. This arrangement, besides relieving the Deputy Commissioner of much unnecessary work, also provided a useful training ground for those officers who were subsequently to hold independent charge of a district.[1] The sub-divisional system was introduced in the Sagar district in 1901 when the district was divided into two sub-divisions, one comprising the tahsils of Sagar and Khurai and the other those of Rehli and Banda.[2]

By about this time, a few more special departments such as Agriculture, Industries and Cooperation were established under separate heads of departments but at the district level the Deputy Commissioner continued to be the executive officer for each of them.[3]

The position of the Deputy Commissioner after half a century of the formation of the Central Provinces was described in the following words[4].

> "For all purposes of general administration the Deputy Commissioner is the unit. As District Magistrate he is ultimately responsible for all matters connected with the prevention, detection and punishment of crime within the limits of his charge. The Police force is under his control and direction, and he has full power to employ it as he thinks best for the maintenance of order and the vindication of the law. He also exercises a close control over the work of the subordinate magistracy. As Deputy Commissioner he is directly responsible for the administration of the Land Revenue and cognate Acts for the assessment and collection of the income tax,[5] and for the administration of the Excise and Stamp Acts. He exercises a general control over the working of all departments of Government (excluding the Judicial Department) in all matters which affect the interest of his charge. He has, however, no responsibility in matters which are of a purely departmental or technical nature. In matters connected with local self-government his interference is ordinarily limited to such guidance and stipulation as he may think necessary; but in the last resort complete powers both of veto and of initiative have been reserved to him."

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1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces and Berar, 1911-12, p. 19
2. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p. 200
3. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces and Berar, 1911-12, p. 21
4. *Ibid.*, p. 19
5. Income-tax became a Central subject in 1921, when a separate department Income Tax Department) was created for its Administration.

This position continued more or less unchanged except that after the outbreak of the last World War, the district administrative machinery, as in other parts of the country, had to perform functions of greater complexity and magnitude. Soon after the declaration of the War, committees at the district and tahsil levels, headed by Deputy Commissioners and Tahsildars were formed to assist the Government in the prosecution of the War. These committees, among others, contributed recruits to the country's defence forces and money to the War Relief Fund. Besides, Savings and Investment Drives were organized in districts under official guidance. At the same time the Deputy Commissioner was entrusted with the administration of controls on food, articles of civil supplies etc., in the discharge of which he was assisted by a Food Officer and a Civil Supplies Officer, both of the rank of an Extra-Assistant Commissioner. A subordinate machinery consisting of Inspectors and others was also set up.

The post-independence period has witnessed many reforms, particularly in the direction of decentralizing the governmental functions at the district level, so as to attune the administration to new conditions. The posts of Commissioners were abolished from the 1st November 1948 and as a result, Deputy Commissioner had direct contact with the Government This was followed by the replacement of District Councils and Local Boards by Janapada Sabhas in the same year Expert administrative set-up was provided in the form of Chief Executive Officers of the rank of Extra-Assistant Commissioners for each Janapada Sabha, which was to cover normally the revenue jurisdiction of one tahsil[1] The Chief Executive Officer was also the Sub-Divisional Officer and Sub-Divisional Magistrate of his tahsil. The Janapada scheme was modified in July 1950 when the Chief Executive Officers were also appointed Additional District Magistrates of their Janapada area and were delegated certain powers of the Deputy Commissioner under the Land Revenue Act and certain other Acts[2] After a couple of years, however, this arrangement was reversed, the Chief Executive Officer remaining only the Sub-Divisional Officer and Sub-Divisional Magistrate.

An important change was also introduced in the administration of criminal justice in 1950 when a selected number of Extra-Assistant Commissioners and Tahsildars, called Judge-Magistrate, were appointed in districts exclusively for disposing of criminal cases. Three such magistrates were posted in the Sagar district under this arrangement. Although the Judge-Magistrates were placed under the administrative control of District Magistrates, this scheme was a prelude to the

1. Report on the General Administration of Madhya Pradesh, 1946-47 to 1950-51, p 48

2. Report on the Land Revenue Administration of Madhya Pradesh, 1950-51, p. 10

complete separation of the judiciary from the executive, which as will be seen later, was to follow after about a decade.

A much more important change came when the First Five-Year Plan was launched in the country. For the implementation of the Plan, the district administration was again made the agency. The Deputy Commissioner was made the Chairman of the District Development Committee, as also of the Block Development Committees, in which capacity he co-ordinated all developmental activities in the district, thus occupying a pivotal position in the Plan structure The Deputy Commissioners' role in the changed set-up was again clarified in 1954 when Government laid down in a circular memorandum[1] that he would be the sole administrator of the district and the chief controlling and co-ordinating authority of the activities of all Government departments whose territorial jurisdiction coincided with the unit of administration and that the district level officers of all departments and their staff would be under his administrative control This position has continued to the present

When the reorganised State of Madhya Pradesh was constituted. it was considered that in a State of this size and character, there should be an effective intermediary authority with wide powers between the Government on the one hand and the Deputy Commissioners on the other. Accordingly the posts of Commissioners were revived from the 1st November. 1956, the Sagar District falling under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner, Jabalpur Division. In the following year the designations of the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner and Extra-Assistant Commissioner were changed to those of Collector, Assistant Collector and Deputy Collector. respectively. A noteworthy administrative reform, which has been introduced in the Mahakoshal region from 1st February 1962, relates to the separation of the judiciary from the executive Under this reform, only those powers have been conferred upon Collectors, Deputy Collectors, Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars under the Code of Criminal Procedure as are sufficient for the adequate discharge of their responsibilities in the maintenance of law and order, and prevention and suppression of crime within their charge Under this arrangement, the Collector continues to be the District Magistrate while the Deputy Collectors, Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars are styled as Executive Magistrates They deal only with the work relating to prevention of crime, security

1. General Administration Department memo No 4931-4226-II, dated 21st September, 1954

proceedings, removal of nuisance, breach of peace and supervision and control over investigation of crime up to the stage the accused is challaned in a criminal court. The actual trial of the case, and such other work as is not assigned to the Executive Magistrates, are performed by Judge-Magistrates who now function under the control and guidance of the District and Sessions Judge.

Collectorate

The Collector of the Sagar district has eleven Deputy Collectors to assist him. An Assistant Collector and a probationary Deputy Collector are also posted in the district for training. Four of the Deputy Collectors are each in charge of the sub-divisions of Sagar, Rehli, Khurai and Banda while the remaining assist the Collector in the work of development, treasury, food and civil supplies, election, land records, consolidation of holdings, office, etc. The headquarters of the Sub-Divisional Officers of Sagar and Banda are at Sagar town while those of the other two are at the respective tahsil headquarter towns The organizational set-up of the Collectorate may be described under three main groups of functions of the Collector, *viz.*, (i) land revenue, land records and other allied matters (ii) law and order and (iii) development

For the administration of the first group of subjects, the district is divided into four tahsils, each tahsil constituting a sub-division. Each sub-division is headed by the Sub-Divisional Officer who is also the Sub-Divisional Magistrate At the same time each Sub-Divisional Officer is the Chief Executive Officer of his respective Janapada Sabha except in the case of Banda where the Tahsildar holds this office There is a Tahsildar in each tahsil, who is assisted by Naib-Tahsildars—their number in the Sagar, Rehli, Khurai and Banda tahsils being seven, four, five and two respectively. At the village level, the revenue and land records work is carried on by Patwaris, each of whom is in charge of one or more villages grouped in 395 circles. Their work is supervised by 21 Revenue Inspectors, each in charge of a group of Patwari circles. A tahsilwise break-up of these figures is given below:—

Tahsil (1)	No. of R. I. Circles (2)	No. of Patwari Circles (3)
Sagar	7	118
Rehli	6	114
Khurai	5	100
Banda	3	63
Total	21	395

At the district level, a Superintendent of Land Records and two Assistant Superintendents of Land Records supervise the work of the Revenue Inspectors and Patwaris.

For the work relating to consolidation of land holdings, the Collector is provided with a staff consisting of a Consolidation Officer (of a gazetted rank), an Assistant Settlement Superintendent, 25 Inspectors and 20 Madadgars.

In the maintenance of law and order, the Collector as District Magistrate is assisted by the magistracy and the police. The former includes the Additional District Magistrate, the Sub-Divisional Magistrates, all of whom are First Class Magistrates, and the Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars, who are Second Class Magistrates. The police force in the district is commanded by the Superintendent of Police.

In the discharge of his functions relating to developmental activities, the Collector is assisted by a Deputy Collector, who is in charge of the Development Section of the Collectorate. There are nine Development Blocks in the district *viz.*, Rahatgarh, Rehli, Khurai, Banda (Benaika), Deori, Shahgarh, Jaisinghnagar, Malthone and Kesli. Each Block is headed by a Block Development Officer, who is provided with a team of Extension Officers drawn from various departments, such as Agriculture, Veterinary and Animal Husbandry, Cooperation, Public Health, Social Education, Panchayats, Industries etc. Further down, there are Village Level Workers (known as Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas) each looking after the development work of group of ten to twenty villages, having a population of about 7000 persons on an average. In order to ensure effective participation of the people at the village level in the planning and execution of the development programme, a Block Development Committee has been constituted for each Block on a uniform pattern in the State. The Committee consists of officials and non-officials, the latter being local members of Parliament and Vidhan Sabha, members of the Janapada Sabha, Gram Panchayats etc. The Collector or the Sub-Divisional Officer acts as the convenor of the Committee while the Block Development Officer functions as its Secretary. A non-official, from among those present at the meeting of the Committee is elected as the Chairman. The functions of the Committee are to advise in the formulation of working plans and development programmes of the Block, to review progress in their implementation and to promote people's participation and co-operation, specially in such programmes as increase agricultural production.[1]

1 Planning and Development memo No. 16182-332-XXII-D-I, dated 20th August, 1957.

Apart from the three main groups of functions mentioned above, the Collector has many other statutory and non-statutory functions to perform. For example, he is also vested with statutory and administrative powers under the Excise Act and Prohibition Act. The excise and prohibition staff is headed by a District Excise Officer in whose jurisdiction the district of Damoh has also been included from December 1960. He is assisted in the Sagar district by an Excise Inspector (designated as Assistant District Excise Officer) and six Excise Sub-Inspectors. Of the Sub-Inspectors, three are posted at Sagar while each of the remaining three is stationed at Rehli, Khurai and Bina. The excise staff has also been entrusted with the administration of the Opium Act, Dangerous Drugs Act, Opium Smoking Act, Stamp Act, Entertainment Duty Act, Tobacco Act and the Shops and Establishment Act.

The control of the district treasury and sub-treasuries is also invested in the Collector. A Deputy Collector functions as the Treasury Officer for the district treasury at Sagar while the sub-treasuries are in the charge of the respective Tahsildars.

The execution of the Registration Act is also the responsibility of the Collector. In this work he is assisted by the Treasury Officer, who also functions as *ex-officio* District Registrar. Besides, there are four sub-registration offices, located at each tahsil headquarter, each in charge of a Sub-Registrar.

In addition to the above, many other miscellaneous subjects, such as, Elections, Agriculture, Food and Civil Supplies, settlement of landless families, welfare of backward classes, etc., are also assigned to the Collector. In the work relating to agriculture, he is assisted by the District Agricultural Officer while in the other functions, one or the other of the Deputy Collectors assists him.

The Collector is also associated with a number of official and non-official committees in the district. Notable among the former is the District Advisory Committee, which was set up in the district in 1958 in pursuance of a general decision of Government. The Collector is the Chairman of this Committee which consists of many non-officials as its members, such as, the local M.L.As. and M.Ps., the Chairman of the Janapada Sabhas, the President of the District Congress Committee etc. A Deputy Collector works as the Secretary of the Committee. The functions of the Committee are to advise the Collector in respect of problems of a purely local character which affect general public interest. This Committee also discharges all

functions of the various Advisory Committees, which had existed previously in the district, such as, the District Development Committee etc. It also acts as the District Advisory Committee under the Emergency Relief Organizations Scheme and Small Savings Scheme and is further charged with securing public cooperation in the prohibition policy of the Government.

The organizational set-up of the other Government agencies at the district level is described below:—

Judiciary.

The Sagar district was included in the Jabalpur civil district until August 1961, when a separate civil district for the Sagar and Damoh districts was constituted with headquarters at Sagar. At present the District Judge, Sagar is assisted by two Additional District Judges—one for the Sagar, Banda and Rehli tahsils and other for the Khurai tahsil. Below them are five Civil Judges, two of whom are Civil Judges, Class I, with headquarters at Sagar, their jurisdiction comprising the tahsils of Sagar and Banda. The remaining three are Civil Judges, Class II, one of whom is in charge of the Sagar and Banda tahsils with headquarters at Sagar while each of the remaining two is stationed at Rehli and Khurai.

On the criminal side, the District Judge and the Additional District Judges of the Sagar civil district are also Sessions Judge and Additional Sessions Judges, respectively of the Sagar Sessions Division. Following the introduction, recently, of a scheme for the separation of the judiciary from the executive, one of the Civil Judges, Class I, also functions as Additional District Magistrate (Judicial). The Civil Judges, Class II, have also been invested with magisterial powers and while exercising these powers are known as Judge-Magistrates. The Additional District Magistrate (Judicial) supervises the work of the Judge Magistrates under the control and guidance of the Sessions Judge.

Police.

Prior to the formation of the Central Provinces, the police duties in the Saugor-Nerbudda territories were performed by Station House Officers who worked under the immediate supervision and control of the Deputy Commissioner. This position continued until 1861 when a regular police force was organised and placed under the direction of an Inspector-General of Police, who was later assisted by Deputy Inspectors-General each in charge of a Range (a group of

districts). Every district had a separate police force under a Superintendent, who worked under the general control of the Deputy Commissioner. In the beginning, the district police force consisted of Inspectors and Constables only but as a result of many processes of reorganization, its hierarchical structure below the Superintendent was made up, in 1921-22, of Assistant Superintendents or Deputy Superintendents, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Head Constables and Constables. This has continued to the present.

Under the existing set-up, the Superintendent of Police, Sagar district, is assisted by four Deputy Superintendents, one of whom is the City Superintendent for the Sagar town. Of the remaining three, one is in charge of Rehli and Banda tahsils while the other two look after the two tahsils of Sagar and Khurai. An Assistant Superintendent of Poilce is also usually posted in the district for training. The Superintendent of Police is under the immediate control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Jabalpur Range.

The subordinate police force in the district consists of 6 Inspectors, 37 Sub-Inspectors, 23 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 120 Head Constables and 679 Constables. Of the Inspectors, four are Circle Inspectors, each in charge of a tahsil, one works as Town Inspector for Sagar town, and one is in charge of the Police Lines at the district headquarters. The Prosecution Branch consists of two District Police Prosecutors and five Police Prosecutors.

The district is divided into the following 21 police stations:—

Name of Police Station	Tahsil in which situated
(1)	(2)
1. Sagar City *Kotwali*	Sagar
2. Sagar Cantonment	
3. Nariaoli	
4. Jaisinghnagar	
5. Sanodha	
6. Surkhi	
7. Rahatgarh	
8. Rehli	Rehli
9. Garhakota	
10. Deori	
11. Maharajpur	
12. Kesli	
13. Khurai	Khurai
14. Bina	
15. Malthone	
16. Bhangarh	
17. Bandri	

(1)	(2)
18. Banda	Banda
19 Behrol	Banda
20. Baraitha	Banda
21. Shahgarh	

Seven out-posts have also been established at the following places in the district :—

1. Dhana	Sagar tahsil
2. Karrapur	Sagar tahsil
3. Bamora	Khurai tahsil
4. Kanjia	Khurai tahsil
5. Khumlasa	Khurai tahsil
6. Tada	Rehli tahsil
7. Hirapur	Banda tahsil

In addition to these, there are also two stations of the railway police in the district, one at Sagar and the other at Bina Each station is under the charge of a Sub-Inspector who is under the administrative control of the Superintendent, Government Railway Police Jabalpur.

Three companies of the Special Armed Force are also stationed at Sagar. One of these is meant for district duties and the other two for anti-dacoity operations.

Education

Sagar has been headquarters of the District Inspector of Schools almost since the inception of the Education Department in the former Central Provinces Under the existing set-up of the department, the District Inspector looks after the administration of primary and middle schools under the immediate control of the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Jabalpur Division. The District Inspector is assisted by 11 Assistant District Inspectors and an Assistant Inspectress.

A District Librarian with other staff is also posted at Sagar. He is in charge of the implementation of the library scheme in the district and is under the administrative control of the District Inspector of Schools.

Public Works

The Roads and Buildings branch of the Public Works Department in the district is in the charge of the Executive Engineer, Sagar Division, and is divided into the following five sub-divisions: —

(i) Regular Building and Roads Sub-Division at Sagar,

(ii) Roads, Sub-Division at Sagar,

(iii) Survey-*cum*-Construction Sub-Division at Sagar,

(iv) Regular Buildings and Roads Sub-Division at Damoh, and

(v) Roads Sub-Division at Hatta.

Each Sub-Division is in the charge of an Assistant Engineer or a Sub-Divisional Officer who is assisted by six Overseers and two Sub-Overseers. The Executive Engineer is under the immediate supervision of the Superintending Engineer, Jabalpur Circle.

The Irrigation branch of the Department has the following two Sub-Divisional Officers in the district :—

(1) Minor Irrigation Sub-Division, Sagar, District Sagar.—This is staffed by a Sub-Divisional Officer, nine Overseers and other ancillary staff.

(2) Bila River Project Sub-Division—headquarters Shahgarh.—This Sub-Division was established in 1956 for the execution of a major irrigation project across the Bila river and is staffed on the usual pattern.

Both these Sub-Divisional Officers are under the control of the Executive Engineer, Irrigation Division, Damoh, whose charge comprises the districts of sagar and Damoh.

Public Health

The Civil Surgeon, Sagar, was incharge of medical and public health matters until 1957 when an Additional Civil Surgeon was also posted in the district for dealing with matters relating to public health and Primary Health Centres. The Civil Surgeon is assisted by five Assistant Surgeons and a Woman Assistant Surgeon. One of the Assistant Surgeons and the Woman Assistant Surgeon are attached to the Main Hospital, Sagar, while each of the remaining four is posted at Rehli, Khurai, Banda and Deori. The Civil Surgeon is also the Superintendent of the District Jail, Sagar.

The Additional Civil Surgeon is provided with a separate staff for public health work which consists of Sanitary Inspectors and

Extra Sanitary Inspectors. Each Primary Health Centre is staffed by a medical officer (of the rank of either an Assistant Surgeon or an Assistant Medical Officer), Sanitary Inspector, Compounder, Health Visitor, Mid-Wife, etc.

A Malaria Medical Officer, with the necessary staff, has also been posted in the district since 1959 under the National Malaria Eradication Programme. He is under the immediate control of the Assistant Director of Public Health, Malaria, Jabalpur.

Forest

The Divisional Forest Officer, Sagar Division, is responsible for the protection, exploitation, regeneration etc, of forests in the Sagar district. He is assisted by two Assistant Conservators of Forests at the headquarters and other field staff. The Division is divided into six ranges, each of which is under the charge of a Forest Ranger, called Range Officer. The ranges are further divided into 21 Range Assistant Circles which, in turn, are divided into 208 Forest Guard Beats as shown below:—

Range	Headquarters	No. of Range Assistant Circles	No. of Beats
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Rehli ..	Rehli	4	45
2. Gourjhamar ..	Gourjhamar .. (Temporarily at Deori).	4	35
3. Deori	Deori	4	28
4 Sagar	Sagar	3	36
5. Khurai	Khurai ..	3	34
6 Banda	Banda ..	3	30
	Total ..	21	208

The Divisional Forest Officer works under the immediate supervision of the Conservator of Forests, Central Circle, Jabalpur.

Agriculture

The Administrative supervision of the activities of the Agriculture Department in the district was the responsibility of the Extra-Assistant Director of Agriculture, Jabalpur Division until 1948,

when a separate Extra-Assistant Director was appointed for the Sagar district. He was assisted by an Agriculture Assistant and some Overseers and Kamdars in each tahsil. By a general decision of Government in the following year, the Extra-Assistant Director was made an Assistant of the Deputy Commissioner in agricultural matters, the object being to ensure complete co-ordination between the activities of the Agriculture and Revenue Departments, particularly in the execution of Grow More Food schemes For administrative and other departmental work, however, the Extra-Assistant Director continued to work under the direction of the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Jabalpur Division.

Under the existing set-up, the designation of the Extra-Assistant Director has been changed to District Agricultural Officer. For work in areas outside the development blocks, he is assisted by three Agricultural Assistants and six Demonstration Kamdars. In areas covered by development blocks, nine Agricultural Extension Officers of the rank of Agricultural Assistants carry out the extension plans of the department with the help of 85 Gram Sewaks These officers function under the Block Development Officers subject to the technical supervision of their work by the District Agricultural Officer, who continues to work under the Collector and Deputy Director of Agriculture, as before.

Veterinary

The activities relating to livestock improvement in the Sagar District are in the charge of a District Livestock Officer, who works under the immediate administrative control of the Deputy Director of Veterinary and Animal Husbandry Services, Jabalpur Division. The District Livestock Officer is assisted by Veterinary Assistant Surgeons, each in charge of a veterinary hospital. At present, six veterinary hospitals are located in the district at Sagar, Khurai Banda, Rehli, Narioli and Bina Besides, ten dispensaries have also been established in the district at Deori, Kesli, Sahajpur, Garhakota, Shahpur, Jaisinghnagar, Khimlasa, Dhana, Mandi Bamora and Baraitha. Each such dispensary is in the charge of a trained Veterinary Compounder

Sagar is also the headquarters of the Assistant Fisheries Development Officer Sagar Division, whose jurisdiction comprises the districts of Sagar, Damoh and Narsimhapur. He is assisted by three Fisheries Inspectors, each looking after a district.

Co-operation

The work of the Co-operation Department in the Sagar district is in the charge of an Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies who works under the immediate supervision of the Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Jabalpur Division. The Assistant Registrar is assisted by one Senior Co-operative Inspector, one Marketing Inspector, three Co-operative Inspectors, ten Sub-Auditors and six Managers Better Farming Societies, in areas not covered by Development Blocks and by an Extension Officer (of the rank of a Co-operative Inspector) in each Development Block.

Sales Tax

The Sagar Sales Tax Circle comprising the districts of Sagar and Damoh is staffed by two Sales Tax Officers, two Assistant Sales Tax Officers and six Sales Tax Inspectors. This staff is under immediate supervision of the Regional Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, Jabalpur Region.

Panchayats and Social Welfare

A District Welfare Officer was posted at Sagar in 1953 for the implementation of the schemes of the Social Welfare Department. Under the existing set-up he is assisted by five Social Welfare Inspectors in non-block areas and by Panchayat Extension Officers and Social Education Organizers in block areas. The District Welfare Officer works under the immediate supervision of the Divisional Welfare Officer, Jabalpur Division.

Employment Exchange

An Employment Exchange was established at Sagar in 1957. In the beginning it looked after the work of the Sagar and Guna districts but consequent on the opening of a separate Exchange for Guna later, the jurisdiction of the Sagar Exchange is now confined to the Sagar district only. The Exchange is headed by an Employment Officer who works under the administrative control of the Director of Employment and Training.

Economics and Statistics

A District Statistical Office is functioning at Sagar since 1957 under a District Statistical Officer, who is assisted by a Statistical Assistant. The staff works under the control of the Director of Economics and Statistics.

Industries

An Assistant Director of Industries is posted at Sagar for performing the functions of the Industries Department in the districts of Sagar and Damoh. He is assisted by an Inspector and a Leather Expert, the later looking after the work relating to leather schemes in the Sagar and Damoh districts. The Assistant Director is under the administrative control of the Director of Industries.

Publicity

A District Publicity Office is also functioning at Sagar since 1958 under the charge of a Public Relations Officer, who is assisted by a Field Publicity Assistant.

Electricity

A Divisional Office of the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board under a Divisional Engineer is also located at Sagar, its jurisdiction comprising the districts of Sagar, Damoh Chhatarpur and Tikamgarh. The Sagar district constitutes a sub-division of this division and is under the charge of an Assistant Engineer This sub-division is further divided into Distribution Centres with headquarters at Bina, Khurai, Garhakota and Rehli, each centre being looked after by a Supervisor The Divisional Engineer is immediately responsible to the Superintending Engineer, Central Circle, Electricity Board, Jabalpur.

UNION GOVERNMENT OFFICES

The following offices of the Government of India are also located at Sagar. The set-up of each of these offices is briefly as follows:—

Office of the Superintendent of Central Excise, Sagar Circle

This office is responsible for the collection of Union Excise Duties within the districts of Sagar, Damoh, Guna, and Vidisha and also within four tahsils of the Raisen district viz., Raisen, Begumganj, Silwani and Gairatganj. The Superintendent is assisted by two Deputy Superintendents, seven Inspectors, three Preventive Intelligence Inspectors and three Sub-Inspectors. For purposes of Central Excise administration the Sagar district (excepting the Rehli tahsil which falls under Damoh Range) is divided into two Ranges, with headquarters at Sagar and Bina. The Sagar Range is looked after by a Deputy Superintendent while the Bina Range is managed by an Inspector.

The Superintendent. Central Excise, is under the immediate Supervision of the Assistant Collector, Central Excise, Jabalpur Division.

Office of the Income Tax Officer, Sagar Circle

The Sagar Income Tax Circle, comprising the districts of Sagar and Damoh, is staffed by an Income Tax Officer and an Income Tax Inspector. This staff is responsible for the assessment and collection of Income Tax, Wealth Tax Expenditure Tax and Gift Tax. Certain income tax cases of the Sagar district are, however, being assessed by the Income Tax Officer, Special Circle, Nagpur, also. The staff of the Sagar Income Tax Circle is under the administrative control of the Assistant Commissioner of Income Tax, Indore Range.

Office of the Assistant Engineer, Central Railways

This office is responsible for the maintenance of the railway track and buildings between Katni and Bina, excepting some areas which fall under the jurisdiction of the Assistant Engineers stationed at Katni and Bina The Assistant Engineer, Sagar, is assisted in his work by three Permanent Way Inspectors and an Assistant Inspector of Works The Assistant Engineer is under the immediate supervision of the Divisional Engineer Central Railways, Jabalpur.

Office of the Telephone Inspector

This office was established at Sagar in 1947, when the telephone system was introduced in the Sagar town. The jurisdiction of this office also extends to the towns of Khurai, Bina, Rehli and Banda, the latter two places having Public Call Offices only. The Telephone Inspector is assisted by a Monitor and three Operators and is responsible to the Sub-Divisional Officer, Telegraphs, Jabalpur.

Military Establishment

Sagar Cantonment is one of the oldest in India and was the first to be established in the former Central Provinces and Berar. Although troops were cantoned here from the year 1818, when Sagar came under the British occupation, it was only in 1835 that a permanent cantonment was established After consolidation of British authority in 1858-59 a regiment of European Infantry was stationed at Sagar. According to the C. P. Administration Report for 1862, three European Artillery units, a unit of Native Cavalry and two European and three Native Infantry units were cantoned at Sagar.

The cantonment was established at Sagar because of its stretegic importance, and particularly because it was an important point for holding the Bundelkhand region in check.

In the beginning, the Sagar cantonment was used as the headquarters of the Narmada Division and then as an Equitation School of India. During the II World War, it was a station for Infantry and small arms school. Later, in July 1949, the Infantry School was shifted to Mhow Cantonment and the Mahar M.G. Regimental Centre was shifted here. This position continues till now.

CHAPTER X

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

The history of the revenue assessments in some of the areas now falling in the Sagar district could be traced back to about the sixteenth century. The *Ain-i-Akbari* gives statistical information about the areas, revenue demand, etc., of the parganas[1] of Dhamoni, Khimlasa, Shahpur, Eran, Itawah, etc., which form part of the present Sagar district. This would suggest that Todar Mal's system of land revenue settlement was extended to these areas during the reign of Akbar (1542–1605). Little is known of the revenue system in these territories under Akbar's successors until we come to the late seventeenth century when Chhatrasal of Panna acquired the parganas of Sagar, Garhakota, Dhamoni, etc. Chhatrasal's principles of revenue administration followed the general lines of the Mughals.[2]

The revenue system under the Peshwas and the Bhonslas, who were the immediate predecessors of the British in the greater portion of the present Sagar district, was one under which villages were either kept under *khalsa* (State) management or else they were farmed out to the highest bidder. In *khalsa* villages the assessment was made annually, its amount was fixed in the first place for the pargana as a whole after the character of the season had become well-known, and then it was distributed among the villages by the pargana officer (*Kamavisdar*). The distribution was made in consultation with the village Patels or headmen who were responsible for apportioning the village demand among the cultivators, whose share was based on a rough estimate of the capacity of their holdings[3]. In *khalsa* villages, the revenue collections were made direct from the cultivators. In the latter days of Maratha rule, however, the distribution of revenue among these villages was very uneven. The ravages of the Pindaris rendered agriculture a very precarious means of subsistence. Much land was, therefore, thrown out of cultivation and many villages were deserted, particularly in the Sagar and Khurai tahsils. In order to offset the lossess which they had to face in the plundered and abandoned tracts, the Maratha

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1. Ain-i-Akbari, tr. by Jarrett, Vol. II, pp. 199 and 201
2. B. D. Gupta, Maharaja Chhatrasal Bundela, p. 130
3. J. F. Dyer, Introduction to the Land Revenue System of the Central Provinces, pp. 101-103.

rulers raised the revenue demand in the other tracts of the district. But the enhanced demand was too high to be paid over a series of years.[1]

In villages, which were farmed out, leases were given for short terms from one to three years. The terms, on which these leases were given, left but a very small margin of profit to the lessee seldom more than one-tenth of the rental assets and very often the demand exceeded the estimated assets of the village Out of the whole income from the village, one-tenth constituted the lessee's profits, the remaining nine-tenths being the State's share But the lessee was squeezed by the revenue officials in many ways and was, therefore, compelled in self-defence to mete out similar treatment to his cultivators.[2]

The year 1818 witnessed the advent of the British in most of the territories comprising the present Sagar district. The early British administrators adopted the principles of their predecessors in effecting the settlement of the villages with lessees, with some modifications. Firstly, whereas the Marathas allowed the revenue to vary from year to year according to the nature of the harvests and the necessities of government, the British, fixed the demand for the year and kept it unchanged for a fixed term of five years[3]. Secondly, while under the Marathas the lessee was given a free hand in the distribution of each year's demand over the agriculturists of his village, the new regime prevented him from carrying the demand on to them as before, thus placing a heavy demand on the lessee[4] In the early decades of the British rule, three five year Settlements were made in the district in 1819, 1824 and 1829, but in their zeal for increasing the revenue, the Settlement Officers assessed the lands so high that they not only maintained the previous Maratha assessments, but also enhanced them[5] The Table below shows the amount of the demand fixed at these Settlements :

Year		Amount (Rs.)
1819-1823	..	5,88,104
1824-1828	..	6,49,701
1829-1833	..	6,27,058

Source · Saugor Settlement Report, 1911-16, p. 29

1 Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1887—97, p. 45.

3. *Ibid*, p. 44.

3 J. F. Dyer, Op. Cit., pp. 22-25.

4. *Ibid*, p. 25.

5 Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911—16, p. 29,

These settlements were of a summary character and the revenue demand was fixed on general considerations. It may be noted here that the area, on which the revenues of these Settlements were assessed, was smaller than the area of the present district, in as much as certain portions of the Rehli, Khurai and Banda tahsils were added to the district only between 1857-58 and 1861.[1]

In the mater of recovery also, there was a difference between the Maratha and British systems. While under the former the realizations were adjusted from year to year in accordance with the character of the harvest, the British system was less elastic and the officers considered themselves bound to recover the full amount on their roll.[2]

Apart from the heavy assessments and the manner of their realisation, the closing years of the third Settlement (1829—1833) were marked by an extraordinary succession of seasons of great calamity with the result that the lessees were constantly in arrears. This made heavy remissions of revenue inevitable, resulting in a considerable fall in the revenue collections[3] But these remissions were of advantage only to the lessees, the cultivators obtaining no relief. The revenue administration of the Saugor—Narbudda Territories was the subject-matter of a report in 1833-34 by Mr. R. M. Bird, Member of the Sadar Board of Revenue North-West provinces, who was deputed to examine the conditions of these territories He roundly condemned the revenue system than prevalent and proposed among other things, a reduction of the revenue and a long-term settlement. To quote Mr. Bird himself[4] :—

> "The system which has been hitherto permitted is no other than an attempt to prop up by temporary expedients a revenue confessedly excessive . ....The demand of a Jumma, higher than can be realized one year with another or indeed, but during a succession of favourable years leaves every man dependent not on his own skill and industry to create the largest possible surplus for his own use after meeting the demand of Government but on the bounty of Government, doled out at the discretion of the district officers to leave him something out of his own demand on which he may subsist ....This system combind with that of short leases and no security for renewal, is of itself sufficient to

1. *Ibid*, p. 29.
2 *Ibid*, 1887—97, p. 45
3. J. F. Dyer, Op Cit., pp. 22-25
4. R. M. Bird, Note on the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, pp 3-4.

account for the unimproved and exhausted state of the lands which are ruined by over-cropping and want of culture."

In accordance with the recommendations of Mr. Bird, a 20 year settlement was carried out in the Sagar district in 1834-35. But the method of assessment at this settlement was again summary without any proper survey. The principal guide of the Settlement Officer was only his personal observation of the tracts, their crops, prices, etc[1] This settlement lowered the demand from Rs. 6,27,958 to only Rs. 6,09,615[2] and was, therefore, no more successful than the previous ones Hardly had it run for 10 years before it broke down, so that in 1845 a general reduction of 10 per cent had to be made on the revenue throughout the district By this time the district had witnessed the Bundela rising (1842) and this coupled with the revolt of the Gond Chief Dulan Shah and the outbreak of the Great Rebellion 1857, had devastated large parts of the district, resulting in a further fall in the revenue collections. The result was that in the 30 years during which the Settlement was actually in force, the collections averaged only Rs. 5,34,201.[3] The settlement of 1834-35 was the subject matter of adverse criticism by Lt. Col. Maclean, who conducted the next settlement operations in the district. About the parganas of Dhamoni, Banaika Patan and Bhera in the Banda tahsil he wrote:

> "............notwithstanding continuous reductions, (which had they been made at once, might have been efficacious) the Government demand presses so heavily upon the people that all enterprise has been crushed, and there is not the slightest attempt at improvement. I have personally satisfied myself that in many instances the Government demand exceeds the gross rental assets of some villages."

"The impression conveyed to me on inspecting these tracts", he further wrote, "was that Pergunnahs was dead so vast was the desolation and so scarce the signs of life or of human beings."[4] Mr. J. H. Morris, the then Settlement Commissioner while forwarding Lt. Col Maclean's Report to Government, observed as follows :[5]

> "From a consideration of the above facts, the Settlement Officer rightly came to the conclusion that the district was unequal to the burden of a heavy land tax, and that a moderate

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1. J. F. Dyer, Op Cit., pp 101-103.
2. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911—16, p. 29
3. *Ibid*, 1887, p. 94
4. *Ibid*, p 24.
5. *Ibid*, C. C s Review, p. 9.

settlement could alone work satisfactorily in it, or conduce to the prosperity of the people; and in this conclusion he was borne out by the working of the preceding Settlements, each of which had been more or less high so that notwithstanding that large remissions of revenue were granted from time to time, still villages changed hands so rapidly that not unseldom the possession of a village was regarded as a misfortune rather than a privilage."

These views were later endorsed by the Government of India and the Secretary of State for India.[1]

By the time the term of the 20 years' Settlement (1834—54) expired, the land revenue policy of the Government of the North Western Provinces had undergone a change in respect of the Sagar—Nerbudda Territories. While issuing instructions in 1853 for a re-settlement of these Territories, the Government had directed, among other things, that proprietary rights should be conferred on lessees with whom settlements had been made in the past as farmers. In the year 1855 the Saharanpur Settlement Rules (so called from their having been issued in connection with the re-settlement of the Saharanpur district) were also extended to these Territories. Under these Rules, the demand of the State upon the new proprietors was limited to one half of the average net assets instead of two-thirds as before.[2]

Although preparations for the commencement of new settlement operations had begun in the Sagar district in 1853 these operations were interrupted, chiefly due to the outbreak of the Great Rebellion and it was only in April 1866 that they were completed by Lt. Col Maclean. By this time, the Saugor—Nerbudda Territories had become a part of the newly constituted province of Central Provinces, but the system of settlement decided for this province was based on the principles laid down by the Government of the North Western Provinces. Lt. Col. Maclean's Settlement was for the first time preceded by a regular survey and construction of field maps and record of rights. Proprietary rights were now conferred on malguzars is 1950 villages out of 1977 in the district,[3] thus giving birth to the institution of landlords or the malguzari

1 R. C. Dutta, India in Victorian Age, pp. 294-95.
2 J. F. Dyer, Op. Cit., pp. 33-35 and 37-38.
3. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1867, p. 6.

system. The genesis of this system was later described by Sir C. Ilbert in the following words : [1]

> "We found a body of cultivators paying revenue to the State through their village headmen. Under and for purposes of the revenue system which we introduced we converted the headmen into proprietors or landlords, the cultivators into their tenants and the payments made by the cultivators into rent."

The assets of the district were estimated at Rs. 8,94,276, out of which the Government demand was fixed at Rs. 4,63,493 which worked out to a little less than 52 per cent of the total assets.[2] The settlement so made was sanctioned for 30 years and was, therefore, generally known as the 30 years' Settlement. It may be stated here that the assets were made up of—(i) payments made by *Malik-Makbuzas* (plot proprietors), (ii) tenants' rental, (iii) rental value of home-farm lands, etc., and (iv) *siwai* or miscellaneous income, which was mainly derived from the malguzari forests and from sale of grass and fruits or the leasing of tanks.

The next settlement of the district which was preceded by a cadastral survey in 1887-1891, was commenced in 1891, but could not be completed until 1897. This Settlement marked an advance over the previous Settlement in respect of the system of assessment. At the 30 years' Settlement the Settlement Officer was not called upon to fix the rent of tenants. He had merely to determine the sum which could fairly be demanded as revenue in respect of each village. It was left to the malguzars and tenants to settle what the rents should be after the government demand had been made known to them. If it was clear that rents would have to be raised in order to meet the enhancement of revenue imposed upon the village, then the Settlement Officer was called into advise them in the matter. But this system was not a success for, the malguzars as a rule had no sufficient power over their protected tenants (such as absolute occupancy and occupancy tenants) to force them to accept any enhancement and whenever this was attempted, it only led to dissension and ill feeling. At the new Settlement, therefore, the Settlement Officer was required to take the tenant's holding, and not

1. Extracts from a speech in the Indian Legislative Council, 1883, quoted in Memo. on Rural Conditions and Agricultural Development of Central Provinces and Berar, 1926, p. 1.
2. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911-16, p. 29.

the village as the unit of assessment and to fix the rent of all protected tenants, who held not less than 50 per cent of the occupied area in the district.[1]

At this Settlement assets were estimated at Rs. 13,68,949 out of which the government demand was fixed at Rs. 6,92,773. At this time the actual current demand stood at Rs. 4,68,421 and thus the new demand represented an increase of Rs. 2,24,352, i.e., 48 per cent.[2] The new revenue which was formally announced in 1897 was destined, however, never to be collected. While the settlement operations were in progress, there began in 189? a series of unparalleled crop disasters culminating in the famines of 1897 and 1900. The result was that during this period the occupied area of the district contracted by 12 per cent and the cropped area by 32 per cent, while the Rabi crops covered only 44 per cent of a normal area and wheat and its mixtures only 30 per cent. So devastating were some other effects of these famines that at the Census of 1901, the fall in the rural population during the decade was found to be as large as 23 per cent[3] Under these conditions, abatements of revenue had to be sanctioned between 1898 and 1901. These abatements reduced the revenue of the district by Rs. 1,83,539 or 26 per cent, of which Rs. 1,07,535 were temporarily abated and Rs. 76,004 permanently. The abated demand of the district thus stood at Rs. 5,09,194.[4]

An abuse arising out of this relief measure may be noted here. After these abatements, a widespread tendency was noticed on the part of malguzars in the Khurai tahsil (where the abatement was permanent) to leave large areas of the finest land uncultivated, partly on account of the profits of grazing,[5] but largely from a deliberate attempt to escape assessment at the next settlement. This practice had become so widespread that the Government decided to issue a public warning in 1910 to malguzars to the effect that fallow land would also be subject to revenue. This had a good effect on most of the malguzars and those who still left the land uncultivated were made to pay at the next settlement. The assessment of 1897 was sanctioned until 1913.

As a preliminary to the next re-settlement, reimposition proceedings were undertaken in 1909-10 in the three tahsils (Sagar.

1. *Ibid*, 1887—97, p. 52.
2. *Ibid*, 1911—16, p. 38.
3. *Ibid*, p. 30.
4. *Ibid*, pp. 30-31.
5. Report on the Revenue Administration of the Central Provinces and Berar, 1914-15, p. 7.

Rehli and Banda) where abatements of revenue were not sanctioned permanently. As a result, a revenue of Rs. 76,131 was reimposed raising the revenue of the district to Rs. 5,85,300.[1] Operations for re-settlement were begun in 1911 and concluded in 1916. By this time, the district had fully recovered from the effects of bad years and prices had risen by about 30 per cent since the previous settlement,[2] resulting in an improvement in the condition of the landlords and tenants. The total assets of the district were finally estimated at Rs. 17,45,342, out of which an amount of Rs. 8,71,917 was fixed as the government demand (50 per cent of total assets). The new demand represented an increase of 26 per cent on that of the last Settlement.[3] The term of this Settlement was fixed at 20 years and was to expire at different dates between 1933 and 1935 in the various parts of the district. The Table below shows the tahsil-wise revenue demand fixed at the different settlements :—

Tahsil	A thirty-years Settlement	At the Settlement of 1897	At the Settlement of 1911-16
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Sagar	1,60,123	2,46,313	3,05,110
Rehli	146,640	2,16,017	2,64,764
Banda	51,871	81,689	1,06,244
Khurai	1,04,859	1,48,714	1,95,799
TOTAL ..	4,63,493	6,92,733	8,71,917

Source.—Saugor Settlement Report, 1911-16, Appendix pp. 83-120.

Although the term of the Settlement of 1911-16 expired in 1933-1935, no further settlement operations have been undertaken in the district, with the result that land revenue is being paid at the rates assessed at the Settlement. But lands, which were not assessed at this settlement, can be assessed by the Collector in accordance with the provisions in the Land Revenue Code. So much about the history of the land revenue assessments.

In the early period of British rule, the land revenue administration of the district rested not on any clear legal basis. The early settlements and collection of land revenue were based only on ancient usage. The settlement procedure, etc., was regulated by executive instructions and proclamations issued from time to time. For instance, the 30 years' Settlement was conducted in accordance with the circular letters and rulings of the Government of the North-

1. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911—16, p. 32.
2. *Ibid*, p. 50.
3. *Ibid*, pp. 58 and 60.

Western Provinces, which later formed the basis of the C. P. Settlement Code of 1863.

No inconvenience in practice was felt from this state of affairs in the earlier days, when the people scarcely realized the possibility of their having any rights as against their rulers. But the diffusion of legal ideas and progress in civic life made it necessary that the relations between the landholders and the Government should be clarified. The want of a definite system of a revenue law was, therefore, keenly felt and it was to supply this want that the first land Revenue Act (XVIII of 1881) was passed by the Supreme Legislative Council in 1881. This Act, among others, gave a legal basis for past and future settlements, regulated the assessment and collection of land revenue, survey, village management, etc. The Act of 1881, as amended in 1889 and 1898, remained in force till 1917 when an entirely new Act, called the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act (II of 1917) was passed and brought into force on the 1st September, 1917. This Act as amended from time to time, continued to be in force till the M. P. Land Revenue Code of 1954 (No. II of 1955) was enacted. In the reorganized State of Madhya Pradesh, a consolidated Land Revenue Code of 1959 (No. XX of 1959) has been enacted.

It has already been shown earlier, how the malguzari system came to be established in the bulk of the villages in the district. Proprietary rights were sometimes sub-divided amongst co-sharers the principal being known as Sadar Lambardar (sadar malguzar and the co-sharers being known as Lambardars (malguzars). The responsibility for the payment of land revenue for the village rested on the Sadar Lambardar in case the proprietary rights were vested in more than one person, and in other cases on the Lambardar. He collected rents from the tenants of the village and paid the government demand.

Rents were paid in cash throughout the district except in the Shahgarh tract (Banda tahsil) where the practice of grain rents existed during the currency of the 30 years' Settlement. At the Settlement of 1897 the grain rents were commuted into cash rents. But in many villages, the grain rents reappeared so that at the Settlement of 1911-16 nearly 4,000 acres of land was found to have been leased on *batia* or *bhag* which amounted to generally one-fifth of the gross produce. For calculating the amount of the produce, and estimate of the standing crop was made before it was harvested,

a method which notoriously lent itself to trickery and oppression of the tenants, so that the demand for commutation into cash was almost universal. This was conceded and at the conclusion of the settlement operations of 1911-16, grain rents were so few as to be of no practical importance.[1]

The first instalment of rent was payable in the district on December 15th and the second on April 15th. The revenue instalments were due one month later. The malguzar was entitled to a profit of 50 per cent of the village assets until 1947-48 when it was reduced to 25 per cent under the Central Provinces Revision of Land Revenue of Estates Act (XXV of 1947). There was no privity between the tenants and Government although, as will be discussed later, the rights of the former were regulated by law.

The proprietor used to hold a part of the village land as his home-farm but under the law this could not exceed one-fourth of the area of the village. Home-farm land was divided into two classes, *viz* :—

(i) that which had been continuously cultivated for a specified number of years (6) known as *sir*. This land could be sub-let without the acquisition of tenant right by the lessee but could not be alienated by the owner without permission.

(ii) that which had not been cultivated for the period specified, which could not be let without tenancy rights accuring to the lessee. This land was termed *khudkashta*, *i.e.* self-cultivated.

At the Settlement of 1911—16, the percentage of the home-farm area to that of the occupied area in the district was 18 per cent.

The village forest, waste land and grazing grounds were also the property of the malguzar but he was required to give permission to all the inhabitants of the village to graze their cattle in the village grazing grounds, to cut wood for making implements of husbandry and to cut and take firewood without payment of compensation of any kind. These were know as *nistar* rights and were specified in the *wajib-ul-arz* (the village administration paper) of each vilage.

The responsibility for the management of village affairs also rested on the malguzar. These included the maintenance, etc., of

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1 Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911—16, p. 42.

threshing floors, barns and grain pits, village roads, paths and the like. The malguzar was also required to provide for customary village expenses.

When a Lambardar died, his son succeeded to his post, subject to the approval of Government. In case, a Lambardar was a minor or a female or became unfit through any infirmity of body or mind, a *gomashta* was appointed by the Deputy Commissioner.

Towards the late nineteen-twenties, however, some difficulties were noticed in the working of the Lambardari system. The office of the Sadar Lambardar started getting unpopular owing to the fact that the post carried no remuneration. Moreover, later a tendency was noticed on the part of the Patti Lambardars to default the payment of their share of land revenue, so that in 1947-48 several Lambardars in the Khurai and Banda tahsils resigned their offices. The Lambardari system, however, ceased to operate from the 31st March 1951, when, with the abolition of the malguzari system, all proprietary rights and interests were vested in the Government under the M. P. Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 (I of 1951). This legislative measure, in fact, meant the ryotwari system under which the cultivators hold land directly from the State For collecting land revenue and other Government dues, Patels have been appointed by election in all villages and they are paid a commission by Government for this work. The Table below shows the amount of commission paid to the Patels in the district during the period from 1956-57 to 1959-60 :—

Year		Amount
		Rs.
1956-57	..	1,13,185
1957-58	..	1,35,348
1958-59	..	1,65,729
1959-60	..	1,89,110

As an experimental measure, the task of collection of land revenue, etc., has also been entrusted to 40 Gram Panchayats in the district.

The land revenue is now recovered in two instalments in the district, *i.e.*, the first instalment falls due on the 15th December, and the second on the 1st May. A month after these dates, a defaulters' list is prepared by the Patwari and is sent to the Tahsildar for recovery.

Muafi Lands.—There were also certain lands in the district which though settled under the malguzari system, were held free of revenue

1. *Ibid*, 1887—97, p. 50.

either in whole or part. Such lands were held in *muafi* tenure and were granted for the maintenance and upkeep of religious institutions such as temples and mosques. At the Settlement of 1911–16, the number of *muafi* (revenue free) holdings was 744 with an area of 7,915 acres.[1] These *muafi* grants were discontinued under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act, 1948 (XXXVII of 1948) and in their place annual monetary grants are sanctioned by the Government. The total annual expenditure on such grants is Rs. 8,454 which is distributed among 36 religious institutions.

Ryotwari Villages.—Apart from the malguzari system, the ryotwari system was also prevalent in a few villages of the district. At the Settlement of 1911–16, the number of ryotwari villages was 27, comprising an area of 10,925 acres. They were scattered all over the district and included the Rahatgarh town in the Sagar tahsil. The other 26 villages were generally small blocks which were originally excised from Government forest on clearance leases. In the beginning, these villages were leased to *thekadars* (farmers) but later they were settled under the ryotwari system and were managed by the Revenue Department. Under this system, the ryots (cultivators) help land directly from the Government. The headman of a ryotwari village was known as Patel, who collected rents from the ryots on payment of a commission which varied from 2 annas to 5 annas 4 pies in the rupee.[2] These villages are now managed according to a common pattern evolved after the abolition of the malguzari system

INCOME FROM LAND REVFNUE AND SPECIAL CESSES

The following Table shows the annual demand and collections of land revenue in the district during the period from 1956-57 to 1960-61 :—

Year	Demand	Collections including Arrears
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	Rs.
1956-57	17,85,339	8,94,740
1957-58	17,86,132	9,64,069
1958-59 .	17,97,373	11,98,028
1959-60 ..	18,06,355	25,96,358
1960-61 .. .	18,11,839	20,76,133

Source—Collectorate, Sagar.

1. *Ibid*, 1911—16, p. 77.
2 *Ibid*, p. 63

Some cesses on land revenue are also levied by the Government Until the beginning of this century, the following cesses were payable in the district by proprietors, whether malguzars or *Malik-Mukbuzas*, and were calculated on the land revenue at the rates shown against them[1] :—

(1) Additional Rate	..		.. 2 per cent.	
(2) Local rates for	.	Roads ..	3 per cent.	5½ per cent.
		Schools ..	2 per cent.	
		Post Offices	1/2 per cent.	
(3) Patwari cess	..		.. 5 per cent.	

The first was an Imperial rate levied under Act X of 1878 and was abolished from the 1st April 1905. The proceeds of the road, school and post office cesses were used within the province to supplement the grants for these branches of expenditure made from Imperial revenues.[2] The Patwari Cess, which was introduced in 1892-93 provided the pay of the Patwaris and their supervising officers.[3] This cess was abolished sometime towards the beginning of the second decade of this century when the Patwaris started getting regular pay. The position regarding cesses underwent a change in 1920 when under the C. P. Local Self-Government Act, 1920 (IV of 1920) only a cess for maintenance of schools, roads and for general purposes was levied in the district. This was calculated at 6¼ per cent on the land revenue and its proceeds were paid to the District Council, Sagar. Another change took place in 1946 when a Panchayat Cess was introduced under the C. P and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946 (I of 1947). This cess was payable at the rate of 6 pies per rupee on land revenue and rentals of proprietors and tenants, respectively, (other than sub-tenants) in respect of lands held by them in the Gram Panchayat area and the proceeds were paid to the Gram Panchayat concerned. When the District Councils were replaced by Janpada Sabhas in 1948, a Janpada Cess was imposed under the C. P. and Beral Local Government Act, 1948 (XXXVIII of 1948). This was calculated at 30 pies per rupee and the proceeds were payable to the Janapada Sabha concerned.

The Panchayat and the Janapada cesses are still levied in the district. It may, however, be stated that under the M. P. Panchayats Act of 1960, which has recently been passed by the State Legislature,

1 Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906-p 196

2. Settlement Code of C. P., 1908, p. xiii.

3. Report on the Administration of Central Provinces, 1892-93, p. 12.

a cess at the rate of 10 paise per rupee will be levied only at the Panchayat level. The Table below shows the annual demand and collections of cesses in the district during the period from 1956-57 to 1960-61 :—

Year	Demand	Collections including Arrears.
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	Rs.
1956-57	2,87,358	1,89,843
1957-58	2,94,446	2,63,314
1958-59	2,96,124	3,61,768
1959-60	2,96,369	3,19,90u
1960-61	2,97,553	2,04,273

Source.—Collectorate, Sagar.

LAND REFORMS

Relations between Landlord and Tenant.—Though clear indication of the existence of tenant rights in the former Central Provinces in the period prior to British rule is not available, it is possible to hypothesise that a certain degree of occupancy rights existed. So long as a cultivator paid his rent, the sense of the community was generally against his ejectment and the position of some cultivators became so strong as virtually to involve a right of continued occupancy. As the Government of India stated in a letter of 22nd December, 1864, to the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces[1] :—

> "His Excellency in Council believes that such rights did exist, and were recognised, though often ever borne and violated. No doubt there was no law, nor any never varying rule, whereby such rights could be maintained; but neither was there any such law or custom upholding even proprietary rights. The will of the ruler of the day, so long as he could enforce it, was the only law of the land. The malguzar, that is, the party who engaged to pay the Government revenue on the land, did very much what he liked with all the tenures in the land, so far as he had the power to do so.............."

1. Correspondence between Chief Commissioner, Central Provinces and Government of India quoted in Introduction to the Land Revenue and Settlement System of the Central Provinces, p. 48.

The old Maratha leases generally contained a stipulation binding the lessee to assist the cultivators and keep them contented. In the early days of the British rule, the policy was to disallow altogether enhancements by the lessees, in so far as the cultivator's rent was fixed as completely as the revenue of the village.[1] With the grant of proprietary rights to malguzars in the early sixties, however, a change in the status of the cultivators from village ryots into the malguzar's tenants followed as a necessary consequence, and thereafter the cultivator's relations with the malguzar became those of a tenant with a landlord.

At this stage a few peculiar features of the tenant landlord relationship in the Sagar district may be depicted here. As far back as 1871-72, it was noticed that land was passing out of the hands of those on whom it was bestowed at the 30 years' Settlement and that it was falling into the hands of bankers and moneylenders.[2] This position held good at the Settlement of 1897 also when it was found by the Settlement Officer that, "The Chief moneylending caste has acquired much property under our rule, and at the present time some of the finest estates in the district are held by its members."[3] The position of the moneylender-*cum*-malguzar was further consolidated during the famines of 1897 and 1900 when in no less than 46 per cent of the villages of the district, the settlement proprietors were wholly or partially ousted. the new-comers being generally businessmen[4] This phenomenon was particularly marked in the Khurai tahsil which was the stornghold of the moneylenders for quite a long time. At the Settlement of 1911–16, out of 548 villages in this tahsil, shares in as many as 189 villages were found to be held between five big moneylenders,[5] one among whom held as many as 84 villages[6] himself. Over and above this, some other malguzars also often supplemented the profits of agriculture with a grain and moneylending business.[7] Actually, it was the general custom of the tenants to borrow seed, and it was the recognized privilege of the malguzar to lend seed, a privilege that was even enforced, if

1. Fuller, Review of the Progress of C P during the past 30 years, 1892, p 39.
2. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1871-72, p. 92.
3. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1887—97, p. 43.
4. Forecast Report on Re-settlement of Saugor District, 1910, para. 15.
5. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911—16, pp 32-33.
6. Forecast Report on the Re-settlement of Saugor District, 1910, para. 15
7. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1911—16, pp. 32-33.

necessary. The result was that the malguzars in the Sagar district were nearly all moneylenders.[1] Thus the tenant had a dual relationship with his landlord—one that of a tenant and the others that of a debtor.

A noteworthy feature of this relationship was that many a moneylending malguzar deliberately refrained from rent enhancement. This is easy to explain. When his moneylending operations extended far enough, the moneylender-*cum*-malguzar reduced his tenants to the position of *galliyas*, a term used locally to denote those cultivators who handed over the whole of their produce *galla* of their land to the landlord in satisfaction of debt Under these conditions when the malguzar was getting all he possibly could out of the land, he was not interested to add to the rent roll by enhancement because at the time of re-settlement, he would be assessed on all such additions. He, therefore, kept his rent-roll as low as possible, entered all payments of money or grain by the cultivator as made in satisfaction of his moneylending claims and put down as small a sum as possible in the Patwari's papers under the head of rent recoveries. He was thus enabled to argue with some show of reason that his revenue assessment was crushingly severe, while at the same time he made a larger profit than it was ever intended that he should make.[2] In this context, although the relations between landlords and tenants were outwardly cordial, the growing enlightenment of the latter and their consequent awakening from their traditional outlook of patient fatalism led to the increasing assertion, from time to time, of their rights against the privileged position of their landlords. The position of the tenants. however, did not improve until the late 'thirties because as late as 1930 the rental collections in the district were reported to be unsatisfactory. This was ascribed to the manipulation by the moneylender-*cum*-malguzars who often contrive to appropriate payments made to them by ignorant tenants for rent, towards the satisfaction of private debt. Moreover, there were some landlords who were dilatory in collecting rents generally through mistaken kindness but often so as to let debts and interests accumulated.[3] The result was that during the late 'thirties especially, there was an increase in the

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1928-29, p 9.
2. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1887—97, p. 42.
3. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1934-35, p. 18.

number of suits filed by the landlords for rental arrears and ejectment of tenants, which is evident from the following Table :—

Year	No. of Suits Instituted	No. of Suits Decreed	No of Cases in which Tenant Ejected
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1936-37	4,345	3,148	309
1937-38	4,707	3,521	415
1938-39	4,704	3,113	379
1939-40	4,464	3,105	338
1940-41	3,222	2,496	N. A.

Source C. P. Revenue Administration Reports

N. B. Figures prior to 1936-37 not available

The measures undertaken to relieve agriculturists from indebtedness have already been dealt with earlier.[1] The following paragraphs indicate the steps taken from time to time to protect them in their tenant rights.

To begin with, the grant of proprietary rights, as carried out at the 30 years' Settlement was by no means an unconditional one and care was taken to protect the cultivators, according to the interests they held in land, resulting in the evolution of a series of different tenancy tenures, such as :—

(a) **Land held by Plot Proprietors in Proprietary Rights (Malik Makbuzas).**—Old cultivators, who had been in uninterrupted possession of their holdings since 1840 were given full proprietary rights, with other proprietary privileges in their holdings; this class came to be known as *Malik Makbuzas*. Later, the period of uninterrupted possession was fixed at 12 years. Such holders owned their holdings absolutely with no restrictions on their powers of transfer or sub-letting and were altogether exempted from the authority of the village proprietor. They were assessed direct to land revenue by Government, but actually paid it through the village proprietor.

1. See Chapter VI.

(b) **Absolute Occupancy Tenancy Right.**—This class also was a relic of the cultivators whom the enquiry at the 30 years' Settlement found to have been long established and deserving of protection. Such a tenant had protection from ejectment so long as the rent was paid, had freedom from enhancement of rent from settlement to settlement and had powers of alienation subject to a right of pre-emption by the proprietor.

(c) **Occupancy Tenancy Right.**—This class included almost all other tenants holding land from the proprietor. Such a tenant was protected from enhancement under certain conditions and was secure from ejectment so long as he paid his rent. He had, however, very limited powers of transfer and in particular could sub-let only for one year and at a time.

(d) **Ordinary Tenancy Right.**—At the Settlement of 1864-65, this class was known as "tenants-at-will" but was later converted into ordinary tenants. Such a tenant held land entirely at the will of the lessor but was given the privilege of acquiring occupancy rights by 12 years' continuous cultivation.

The percentage of occupied area held in each of the above tenures in the district at the Settlement of 1911-16 is shown below:—

Tenure	Percentage of Occupied Area
(1)	(2)
Home Farm—	
Sir	12
Khudkasht	6
TOTAL ..	18
Malik Makbuza ryots, Sarkar and Revenue Free Grantees .. .	5
Tenants—	
Absolute occupancy	13
Occupancy	19
Superior Ordinary	12
Ordinary	31
TOTAL ..	75
Privileged tenants	2

NOTE.—Superior ordinary holdings were held in ordinary right by the privileged tenants.

Formerly the rights of proprietors and tenants rested only on executive instructions, but the necessity of a statutory law in this behalf was soon felt. The first step in this direction was taken in 1864 when the Bengal Rent Act (X of 1859) was extended to the Central Provinces, with a view to providing a procedure for dealing with cases regarding tenant right[1]. This measure was, however, a mere makeshift and the necessity of a separate law for regulating the relations between landlords and tenants in the Central Provinces was recognized as early as in 1873. The first Tenancy Bill was brought forward in the Imperial Council in 1880, but it did not become law until 1883. The objects of the Bill were clearly brought out in the observations of Sir C Ilbert who, while moving the Bill said[2]:—

> "......... .. And as to the principles of legislation it is clear that we must not allow what was intended to be a boon to the immediate revenue payers to be a curse to those from whom the revenue is ultimately derived. In giving the proprietary right to one class the Government neither intended nor had a right to injure the status of another and much larger class, and if it is found that the change which we have introduced has injured that status, we are not only justified in devising but bound to devise, measures for remedying that evil. Our object, then, should be to protect the tenant, so far as it is practicable, to protect him by legislation, and the only question is what form that protection should take."

The history of tenancy legislation since this time has been a succession of enactments tending to restrain and curtail on behalf of the actual cultivator the enormous and almost absolute powers which the grant of proprietary rights bestowed on the proprietors.

The Tenancy Act, of 1883, which took effect on the 1st January 1884, for the first time defined the rights and liabilities of the then existing classes of tenants and provided measures against rack renting ejectment, etc For instance, under the Act the rent of an absolute occupancy tenant was to be fixed by the Settlement Officer for the period of the settlement while the rent of an occupancy tenant was to be fixed by him and could not, therefore, be enhanced for 10 years Further the Act converted the tenants-at-will into ordinary tenants with a defined status and protection from arbitrary ejectment The rent of an ordinary tenant was, however,

1 J. F. Dyer, Op Cit p 89

2. *Ibid*, pp. 91-93.

left to be fixed between him and his landlord, but if the tenant refused to accept an enhancement and the landlord had recourse to a revenue officer, the increased rent fixed by the latter could not be again raised within seven years.[1] It has already been noted that such tenants were given the privilege of acquiring occupancy rights by 12 years' continuous possession. This was found to work to the disadvantage of tenants in some areas as they were continuously shifted by the malguzar from holding to holding so as to bar the accural of occupancy rights In the Act of 1883 in place of 12 years' continuous occupation, the right of purchasing occupancy right by the payment of a premium equal to 2½ years rental was substituted. At the same time, ordinary tenants were given the power of claiming compensation for disturbance and were protected from ejectment for non-acceptance of rental enhancement until such compensation was paid.[2]

After a few successive amendments, the Tenancy Act of 1883 was finally replaced by a new Act of 1898 under which, among others, the Settlement Officer was authorised to fix all rents This enabled him to reduce the rents of ordinary tenants which he deemed excessive At about this time, a clause was inserted in the *wajib-ul-arz*. which bound the malguzars in their dealings with the tenants to abide by the provisions of the Tenancy Act. This was done with a view to enabling the Government to interpose executively in cases of oppression instead of having to leave it to the tenants to put the malguzar into court[3] The Act of 1898 remained in force until 1920 when the tenancy law was completely re enacted, the new Act being known as the C P Tenancy Act (I of 1920) An important change under this Act was in respect of the class of ordinary tenants which was abolished and all such tenants were converted into occupancy tenants[4] No important change took place in the position of the tenants until the introduction of Provincial Autonomy (1937-1938) when the Congress Ministry undertook a series of measures to protect the tenants To start with, 12½ per cent reduction of rents was given in respect of small holdings during 1937-38. This was followed by the appointment in August 1938 of a Committee known as the Revenue Committee for "overhauling the tenancy and land revenue system in the Central Provinces on well considered and comprehensive lines" On the recommendations of this Committee, the Tenancy Act underwent many amendments in 1939-40, under

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1 *Ibid*, p 93
2. Fuller. Op Cit para 31.
3. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Saugor District, 1887 - 97, p 66.
4. J F Dyer, Op. Cit, pp 94-96

one of which the Government was empowered to declare absolute occupancy tenants and occupancy tenants as *Malik-Mukbuzas* on payment to the landlord of an amount equal to 10 and 12½ times the rent, respectively, of the holding. By another amendment, sub-tenants of *Malik-Makbuzas* and tenants were also recorded as occupancy tenants if the lands were habitually sub-let. Further, if *sir* or *khudkasht* lands were leased as one holding on or after the 1st November 1939, the lessee could acquire the same right in *sir* land as he would in the *khudkasht* land and the *sir* right in such land was extinguished.

By about this time action was also taken to protect the backward tribes of the district from the rapacity of the money-lending classes. With this end in view, the C. P. Land Alienation Act of 1916 (II of 1916), which had been enacted to place restriction on the transfer of agricultural land held in proprietary rights from aboriginal to non-aboriginal classes, was made applicable in 1918 to the Rehli, Banda and Khurai tahsils.

The assumption of office by the Congress Ministry again in 1946 accelerated the pace of land reforms in the State. Many measures were initiated in this direction but the most important among them was the abolition of intermediaries between the State and the actual tiller of the soil. While the M. P. Abolition of Proprietary Rights Bill, passed by the Vidhan Sabha in April 1950, was awaiting the assent of the President, an interim legislative measure known as the M. P. Agricultural Raiyats and Tenants (Acquisition of Privileges) Act, 1950 (XVIII of 1950) was enacted in the same year for facilitating the abolition of proprietary rights, for the protection of tenants from ejectment, etc. Under this Act, the right of plot-proprietorship (*Malik Makbuza*) could be conferred upon tenants on payment of a prescribed premium.[1] The tenants in Rehli and Khurai tahsils in particular availed of this concession and in 1950-51, the following amounts of premia were collected in the district :—

	Rs.
Sagar	6,773
Rehli	40,413
Khurai	35,820
Banda	7,201

1 Preface to M. P. Agricultural Raiyats and Tenants (Acquisition of Privileges) Act, 1950 (XVIII of 1950) and the Rules thereunder.

The M. P. Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals, Alienated Lands) Act, 1950 (No. 1 of 1951) received the assent of the President on the 22nd January 1951 and came into force from the 31st March 1951. Under a notification issued under this Act, all proprietary rights in estates and mahals vested in the State Government on 31st March 1951. This measure constitutes an important landmark in the history of land reforms, since under this Act the malguzari system was abolished throughout the State of Madhya Pradesh. From this time, barring home-farm, homestead, private wells and tanks and occupied land held by proprietors and tenants, all rights and title and interest vesting in the proprietor vested in the State Government. The proprietors were, however, allowed to retain their home-farm lands in *Malik-Makbuza*, rights. In the beginning the Patwari took charge of the land, etc., vested in the State on behalf of the Deputy Commissioner but later Patels were appointed through election for this purpose.

For the loss of proprietary rights, the proprietors were entitled to a compensation in accordance with prescribed scales. Further, petty proprietors were entitled to a rehabilitation grant which was payable immediately and the amount of debts or liabilities due by the outgoing proprietors, except the excluded debts, were to be scaled down by the Claims Officer to be appointed under the Act. A special department called the Land Reforms Department was constituted in the State for implementing the main provisions of the Act. Under the set-up of this Department, a Deputy Commissioner of Land Reforms was appointed in the Sagar district in February 1951 with Compensation-*cum*-Claims Officers and other staff. Till the 31st March, 1960, an amount of Rs. 32,94,020 was paid as compensation to the ex-proprietors in the district, the tahsil-wise break-up of this figure being as below:—

Tahsil	Amount
	Rs.
Sagar	10,23,831
Rehli	5,51,043
Khurai	14,46,814
Banda	2,72,332
TOTAL	32,94,020

The land reforms staff had to meet a problem. Before the enforcement of the Act, the ex-proprietors had made many transfers of waste lands, many of which were effected by unregistered deeds.

Under the Act, such transfers after the 16th March, 1950, were to be deemed void and all cases of transfer which were made after this date were registered in the Court of the Deputy Commissioner of Land Reforms for validation of the transfers.

The Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, besides abolishing the malguzari system, also aimed at giving greater security and additional rights to the tenants. For instance, the Act allowed them to hold lands in their previous rights as tenants of the State and to pay rent to Government as payable to the ex-proprietors, thus bringing them in direct relationship with the Government. The tenants were further given facilities to acquire plot proprietary rights in the lands held by them on payment of a nominal premium. The position in former malguzari villages after the abolition of the malguzari system thus was that all cultivators, other than sub-tenants, became the tenants of the State and the ex-proprietors became *Malik Makbuzas* of the land under their personal cultivation.

The abolition of the malguzari system was followed by the simplification of land tenures. With this end in view and for consolidating all land laws of the State, the M. P. Land Revenue Code, 1954 (II of 1955) was enacted and brought into force from the 1st October, 1955. Under this Code, all *Malik-Makbuza* and absolute occupancy tenants were made bhumiswami, i.e., full proprietors of land while the occupancy tenants were given bhumidhari right which was almost equivalent to a proprietary right except that a bhumidhari could not mortgage his interest in the land nor could such interest be attached or sold in execution of any decree or order. But a bhumidhari had the option to acquire bhumiswami rights by paying three times the land revenue to the State Government.

As regards sub-tenants and lessees, under the Tenancy Act, 1920 any person who habitually sub-let his land for seven years in a consecutive period of 10 years ran the risk of having the last sub-tenant created as an occupancy tenant under him and such an occupancy tenant was given the right to acquire the rights of his landlord on payment of 12½ times the rent. The Land Revenue Code modified the meaning of 'habitual sub-letting' by substituting a lesser period of three years in any period of five years. An occupancy tenant of a bhumiswami and a bhumidhari could acquire ownership right on payment of premium at 10 and seven times the rent, respectively. It may, however, be noted that in the Sagar district (including former Damoh Sub-Division) the proportion of land sub-let was only 5.6 per cent of the total occupied area.[1]

1. Land Reforms Committee Report 1955, pp. H. p. 160.

In the reorganized State of Madhya Pradesh, the whole position regarding land tenures and tenancy reforms in the constituent units was reviewed and, as a result, a unified Land Revenue Code, 1959, (No. 20 of 1959) was enacted and brought into force from the 2nd October 1959. This Code incorporates all the important features of land reforms, such as uniformity of tenures, protection of tenants against arbitrary ejectment, rack-renting, and conferring bhumiswami rights on them.

In the place of multiple tenures existing previously, the Code provides for only one class of tenure holders of lands from the State to be known as bhumiswami. A bhumiswami shall have rights of transfer subject only to one restriction that such transfer does not either create a holding above a prescribed limit or an uneconomic holding below 10 acres. Subject to certain restrictions, he will have full rights over all kinds of trees in his holdings. A bhumiswami has also a right to mortgage his land both by simple or usufructuary mortgage. Thus the Code aims at eliminating tenancy and bringing into existence peasant proprietorship based on owner-cultivation.

The Code also protects the rights of sub-tenants, who are given the status of occupancy tenants. An occupancy tenant can be conferred bhumiswami rights on his paying 15 times the land revenue in five equal instalments. To protect the existing occupancy tenant of bhumiswamis from being rack-rented, it has been laid down that the maximum rent payable by an occupancy tenant shall not exceed four times the land revenue in the case of irrigated land, three times the land revenue in the case of land under *bundhas* and two times the land revenue in other cases. No sub-letting or leasing of land is now permitted except in very emergent cases once in three years or by certain classes of persons such as widows, unmarried women, minors, etc.

Nistar and Grazing Rights—

It has already been stated that formerly *nistar* and grazing rights were regulated by the malguzars in accordance with the customs and the rules recorded in the village administration paper, called the *wajib-ul-arz*. A practice was, however, later established under which landlords used to take *begar* (free labour) from tenants. This led Government to make a suitable provision in the C. P. Tenancy Act in 1937-38 under which landlords could be penalized for *begar*. The prohibition of this widely established practice at once led to the curtailment by ladlords of some of the privileges and concessions previously enjoyed by tenants but not legally established. The

result was that there were some disputes about *nistar* and grazing rights in the district which had to be settled in revenue and civil courts. After the Congress Ministry re-assumed office in 1946, in view of the contemplated abolition of the malguzari system, the malguzars again tried to deny *nistar* rights to the people. This eventually led to the enactment of the C. P. and Berar Grazing and Nistar Act, 1948 (XXII of 1948) which provided for free grazing of the cattle of agriculturists and a prescribed number of cattle of non-agriculturists in the grazing area of all villages.

Following the abolition of the malguzari system, the administration of *nistar* also devolved on the State Government. In order to settle the grazing and *nistar* problems on systematic lines, the Government appointed a special staff of Nistar Officers (of the rank of Deputy Collectors) in each tahsil who after settling disputed problems of *nistar* rights and grazing, revised the *wajib-ul-arz* of each village. These operations were completed in the district by 1956

Ceiling of Holdings

Apart from the measures of land reforms indicated above, the question of fixing a ceiling on the ownership of land holdings was also considered in the former Madhya Pradesh. The Government appointed in 1954 a Committee known as the Land Reforms Committee which examined the matter at great length and submitted a report in 1955. The Committee recommended the imposition of a ceiling on the existing possession of land holdings as well as on future acquisitions But before any action could be taken on these recommendations, the re-organization of states took place in the country.

This question was again taken up in the re-organized State of Madhya Pradesh and as a result a special law, called the Madhya Pradesh Ceiling on Agricultural Holdings Act, 1960 (No. XX of 1960), has been enacted and brought into force from the 15th November 1961. According to this Act, apart from inherited land, no person shall acquire more than 25 standard acres per family consisting of a husband and wife. Additional five standard acres have been allowed for dependents up to five, to the maximum extent of 25 standard acres. The ceiling is thus limited, depending on the number of dependents, to 50 standard acres.

Consolidation of Holdings

Although operations for the consolidation of holdings (*chakbandi*) were started in some districts of the former Central Provinces as early as in the 'twenties, this work was taken up in the

Sagar district only in 1948, when the C. P. Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1928 (VIII of 1928) was extended to the district. The operations were first undertaken in the Khurai tahsil as a part of the scheme to eradicate *kans* by using tractors; but they were extended later to the other tahsils also. The scheme is still in progress. For this purpose, a special staff headed by a Consolidation Officer (of a Gazetted rank) has been appointed.

The scheme was not compulsory either under the C. P. Consolidation of Holdings Act, or under the M. P. Land Revenue Code, 1959, which now governs the consolidation of holdings. There is also some opposition to the scheme from cultivators who are generally reluctant to part with their ancestral lands. For these reasons the progress of the scheme has been tardy.

The Table below shows the progress of consolidation work in the district during the past 10 years:—

Progress of Consolidation of Land Holdings

Year	No. of Villages For Which Schemes were Prepared and Confirmed	Area Consolidated (acres)	Khasra Numbers before *Chakbandi*	Khasra Numbers Excluded from *Chakbandi* *i.e., baris kothars*, etc.	Net Khasra Numbers after *Chakbandi*	Percentage Reduction of col (6) on col. (4)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1950-51 ..	80	67,018	32,051	6,410	17,695	45
1951-52 ..	79	53,038	23,453	4,691	19,402	17
1952-53 ..	78	46,735	18,814	3,723	13,331	29
1953-54 ..	79	53,673	26,735	5,347	18,151	32
1954-55 ..	93	74,201	25,027	5,005	17,780	29
1955-56 ..	79	48,016	20,852	4,170	15,325	27
1956-57 ..	87	53,311	13,849	2,769	9,265	33
1957-58 ..	57	22,342	10,005	2,001	6,250	37
1958-59 ..	58	31,625	21,845	4,369	13,712	37
1959-60 ..	55	39,785	17,516	3,503	11,224	36
1960-61 ..	85	49,322	26,956	5,391	18,197	32
TOTAL ..	830	5,39,066	2,37,103	47,379	1,60,332	32

Bhoodan—

The Bhoodan Yagna (land gift) movement initiated in the country in 1951 by Acharya Vinoba Bhave to solve the problem of landless labourers had its impact on the districts of old Madhya Pradesh, as on the rest of the country. To facilitate the activities in connection with this movement in the State, the Government of Madhya Pradesh enacted the Bhoodan Yagna Act, 1953 (No. XV of 1953) under which a Bhoodan Yagna Board was constituted with headquarters at Nagpur. The main duty of this Board was to administer all lands vested in it for the benefit of the Bhoodan Yagna. It was empowered to constitute Tahsil Committees which distributed the bhoodan lands to landless persons, capable of cultivating them personally In the reorganized State of Madhya Pradesh, this Board functions for the Mahakoshal region only and has its headquarters at Narsimhapur It receives an annual grant from the Government. Till the end of 1960, 4,245 35 acres of land had been received in the district as bhoodan, out of which 3,594 acres were distributed, mostly in the Sagar and Rehli tahsils

ADMINISTRATION OF OTHER SOURCES OF REVENUE CENTRAL AND STATE

It will be remembered that the revenues of India were classified into Indian Provincial and Divided heads until 1920 when following the introduction of the Montague-Chelmsford reforms, the Divided heads were abolished and a complete separation took place between the Central and Provincial revenues From this time, two types of revenues namely, Central and Provincial (now State) have been current in the country

The important items of Central Revenue are Union Excise Duties, Income Tax and Estate Duty Some particulars about these revenues, as far as they concern the Sagar district, are given below

Union Excise Duties.— The main excisable commodities in the district are unmanufactured tobacco and vegetable non-essential oils. A Superintendent of Central Excise, along with other staff, is posted at Sagar for the collection of these duties in the district

The annual receipts in the district from this source from 1956-57 onwards are given below :—

Year		Amount
		Rs.
1956-57	..	43,54,140
1957-58	..	72,28,193
1958-59	..	89,48,855
1959-60	..	97,64,524
1960-61	..	1,18,65,271

Income Tax and Estate Duty.—An Income Tax was in force in the former Central Provinces as far back as 1861-62 but it was abolished in 1865-66. It was introduced again in 1869-70 but only to be again abolished in 1873-74. The Income Tax was again revived in 1887-88[1] and has been in force since then. In the earlier days, the assessment and collection of this Tax formed part of the duties of the Revenue Department of the Provinces but after Income Tax became a Central source of revenue, a separate administrative machinery was created for this purpose in 1922 under the Central Government.[2] At present the assessment and collection of Income Tax in the Sagar district is the duty of the Income Tax Officer, Sagar Circle, with headquarters at Sagar. The Circle comprises the districts of Sagar and Damoh . The Income Tax Officer has also been entrusted with assessment and collection of three more taxes, *viz*, Wealth Tax, Gift Tax and Expenditure Tax, which have been brought into force recently The collection, etc , of Estate Duty was also a part of the functions of the Income Tax Officer until 1954-55 when a separate Assistant Controller of Estate Duty (of the rank of an Income Tax Officer) was appointed with headquarters at Indore. The receipts[3] from Income Tax and Estate Duty in the Sagar and Damoh districts from the year 1956-57 onwards are given below:—

Year		Amount
		Rs.
1956-57	..	3,74,950
1957-58	..	10,60,669
1958-59	..	10,78,166
1959-60	..	25,61,170
1960-61	..	34,01,933

1. Fuller, Op Cit , p 22.
2. Report of Taxation Enquiry Commission, 1953-54, Vol II, para 59
3. Separate figures for Sagar district are not available.

Certain important sources of State revenues, not already covered, are forests, sales tax, stamps, taxes on motor vehicles and registration. A brief account of these items of taxation and the income from them is given below:—

Forests.—As observed earlier, the percentage of forest area to the total geographical area in the district is 30.7 per cent. The forest area is administered by the Divisional Forest Officer, Sagar Division. The revenue from forests is derived from timber and other produce removed by Government and consumers/purchasers and from other miscellaneous sources like cattle grazing, etc. The annual income from the forests in the district from the years 1956-57 onwards is given below:—

Year		Amount Rs
1956-57	..	25,14,951
1957-58	..	28,46,988
1958-59	..	24,22,961
1959-60	..	29,75,553
1960-61	..	31,31,452

Sales Tax.—This Tax was introduced in the district on the 1st June, 1947 under the C. P. and Berar Sales Tax Act, 1947 (XXI of 1947) In new Madhya Pradesh, this Act has been replaced by the M. P. General Sales Tax Act, 1958 (II of 1959) which has been brought into force from the 1st April 1959 It is administered by the staff of the Sales Tax Circle, Sagar, the jurisdiction of which extends to the Damoh district also The annual receipts from this item in the Sagar district from 1956-57 onwards are shown below:—

Year		Amount Rs.
1956-57	..	20,03,648
1957-58	..	16,22,313
1958-59	..	9,25,658
1959-60	..	14,07,637
1960-61	..	18,66,042

The fall in the receipts for 1957-58 and 1958-59 is due to the fact that since the 13th December 1957, cloth, tobacco (including its products like bidi, cigarettes, etc), and sugar have been exempted from Sales Tax The increase in receipts in subsequent years is attributed to the introduction of first-point taxation

Stamps.—The income under this head is from sales of stamps of various denominations, both judicial and non-judicial. The annual receipts from this item in the district from 1956-57 onwards are shown below:—

Year		Amount
		Rs.
1956-57	..	4,56,275
1957-58	..	4,00,322
1958-59	..	4,13,288
1959-60	..	5,32,888
1960-61	..	4,90,137

Taxes on Motor Vehicles.—The income under this head is derived from the registration of motor vehicles, issue of licences to drivers, conductors, etc., which are levied under the Motor Vehicles Taxation Act This Act is administered by the Transport Department.

The annual receipts from the taxes on motor vehicles in the district are shown below:—

Year		Amount
		Rs.
1956-57	..	1,71,918
1957-58	..	1,10,778
1958-59	..	1,87,612
1959-60	..	1,15,841
1960-61	..	3,34,407

The increase in the receipts during 1960-61 is mainly due to an enhancement of this Tax on goods vehicles.

Registration.—The annual income under this head, which is derived from registration fee, copying fee, etc., is shown below:—

Year		Amount
		Rs.
1956-57	..	61,420
1957-58	..	88,624
1958-59	..	93,324
1959-60	..	1,15,761
1960-61	..	97,392

The rise in receipts during 1959-60 is partly due to large-scale transfers of lands while the Land Revenue Code Bill was under consideration. The Land Revenue Code, which was introduced from the 2nd October, 1959, however, imposed restritions on these transfers, with the result that there was a fall in the registration work in the succeeding year. Hence there is the drop in the revenue receipts in 1960-61.

CHAPTER XI

LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

A modern system of law and justice may be said to have existed in Sagar district from the time it came under the British. Prior to this date there, no doubt, existed a system of trial and punishment of crime according to the practice of the ruling chiefs who governed this area, either under the Mughals or, later, under the Marathas. But when in 1818 a large part of the present Sagar district was ceded to the East India Company by the Marathas, and thus formed a part of the 'Saugor and Nerbudda Territories', "Civil Justice was administered by a Judge and a native Judicial Staff, framed after the model of the North-West Provinces, and consisting of Principal *Sudder Ameens, Sudder Ameens* and *Moonsiffs;* and a Procedure Code prepared by Mr A. A. Roberts when he held the office of Judge."[1]

With the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861, comprising the Nagpur Province and the 'Saugor-Nerbudda Territories', one of the first tasks was to bring about a uniform system of law and procedure in the whole province. "One of the chief labours of the year", says the Administration Report of the Central Provinces, 1862-63, "then has been to establish the various Laws and Acts required for, or applicable to, these Provinces and to fuse all the various Rules and orders into one system to be observed in all districts alike."[2]

One of the consequences of this was that the Judicial establishments in Saugor-Nerbudda territories had to be revised. The posts or, rather the designations, of Principal *Sudder Ameens/Sudder Ameens Moonsiffs;* etc; were abolished and replaced by Tahsildars and Extra-Assistants. "But in a Judicial point of view, the result has been to largely increase the number of Courts especially in the interior of District.......Under the new system, there will not be less than two, three or four Tehsildars in the interior of every district. Formerly there were officers of all grades empowered to decide causes, great and small, in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories: there are now fifty such officers. And as the increase will chiefly be in distant portions of the Territories, the convenience to the people will be considerable."[3]

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1862, p. 15.
2. *Ibid,* 1862-63, p. 11.
3. *Ibid,* 1862, p. 15.

In 1862-63, the following courts were established to administer civil justice in the district.—

1. Court of Cantonment Magistrate, Sagar.

2. Courts of Tahsildars.

3. Courts of Extra Assistant and Assistant Commissioners.

4. Court of Deputy Commissioner.

Besides these, the court of the Divisional Commissioner, which had appellate jurisdiction was also situated at Sagar till 1864.

Court of Cantonment Magistrate, Sagar was created in Sagar district in 1861 and its seat was located at Sagar. It tried petty Civil and Criminal cases within the limits of Sagar Cantonment and its decisions were not appealable

The powers of other Courts mentioned above were defined as follows by the Act XIV of 1865.[1].

Court (1)	Class (2)	Judicial Powers (Civil) to Try suits (3)
1. Tahsildar ...	II Class	... Not exceeding Rs. 100 in value
Do.	I Class	... Not exleeding Rs. 300.
2. Assistant Commissioner	III Class	... Not exceeding Rs. 500.
	II Class	
	I Class	... Not exceeding Rs. 5,000.
3. Deputy Commissioner	...	... No pecuniary limit.
4. Divisional Commissioner	...	... Tried appeals without pecuniary limit.
5. Judicial Commissioner	...	Do.
6. Small Causes Court	...	... Powers according to Act XLII of 1860 (and mended by Act VII of 1861).

1. *Ibid*, 1872-73, p. 20.

Some changes were introduced into the Judicial set up of the district in period 1868—72. According to a rule laid down in 1868 at the headquarters of the district, one Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner was appointed to preside over the civil court and do all the work. The Tahsildar at the headquarter was also relieved of Civil work. In order that no case might be beyond the competency of this officer, he was gradually invested with the highest powers, an Assistant could legally exercise. The consequence of this was that all appeals in the most petty as well as in the more important cases lay to the Commissioner, instead of to the Deputy Commissioner, as follows :—

> "Hitherto the rule laid down for guidance has been briefly this, that both at the headquarters of the districts and at out-stations only one officer, be he Tahsildar or Assistant Commissioner, was to be entrusted with the performance of the Civil Court business up to the limit of his powers so long as one officer, by giving his full time to the work, could dispose it off."[1]

The result of this procedure was that the Commissioner was over loaded with petty judicial work. In order to relieve this situation it was laid down by the Chief Commissioner in the early part of the year 1873, that Tahsildars at the headquarters of a district shall take up all civil suits within their competency to the extent the Deputy Commissioner deemed convenient. At the headquarters of every district there shall be a Station Court presided over by an Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner having the powers of a court of 3rd or 4th class under the C. P. Courts Act, i.e. the power to hear all suits up to Rs. 500 or Rs. 1,000 in value. He was to hear all suits above the competency of Tahsildars but within his own. This Civil and Judicial work was divided between two courts—Court of Tahsildars and Court of an Assistant Commissioner. Similarly, the Tahsildar at headquarters of the district was also relieved of Civil work. Suits above Rs. 1,000 in value were laid, in the smaller districts, in the court of the Deputy Commissioner himself, in the larger districts in the court of an Assistant Commissioner invested with the powers of a court of the 5th class. (Report 1872—73, p. X).

In the district when the strength of judicial officers besides the Deputy Commissioner increased to more than two, it was made a convention that one of them may entirely be devoted to civil work. This rule was modified in 1872-73.

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1. *Ibid*, p. VIII.

In 1877, the Civil Procedure Code was modified. This extended the jurisdiction of the Small Causes Court. During the period petty suits were increasing and engaging attention of the authorities. The courts of Naib-Tahsildars were increased and they were empowered to try cases up to Rs. 50 in value. From year 1884-85 by virtue of the Tenancy Act, 1884 all tenancy suits formerly tried by revenue courts were transferred to Civil Courts.

By the C. P. Civil Courts Act (Act XVI of 1885) a new court presided by the Moonsiff was established, from 1st October, 1885 to relieve the burden of Tahsildar at headquarters. But the following improvements were made. "It was part of the scheme that in tahsils having a Naib-Tahsildar exercising Civil powers, and to which an Additional Tahsildar (Moonsiff) is appointed, the Court of the latter should ordinarily be established in lieu of that of the former......... Another important features of the scheme was the relief of Deputy Commissioners of districts in which Civil appellate work is heavy, by appointment of more officers of the rank of Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner to be Civil Judges with appellate powers"[1].

The Deputy Commissioner was exercising over-all administrative control at district level on civil work in the Central Provinces till 1900 when power under Civil Procedure Code and Provincial Small Causes Courts were exercised by revenue officers. But the Procedure was modified in 1901 and civil judicial work was separated from other administrative work. From that year the revenue officers stopped to act as Civil Judge but the officers who were doing civil judicial work could only be given the charge of treasuries and registration. The District Judge who was now in charge of civil courts in the district exercised only a limited jurisdiction. The Divisional and Sessions Judge had superior jurisdiction of civil powers and was taking up original appellate criminal work.

In 1917 Central Provinces Courts Act (Act I of 1917) was passed and put into operation from the 14th May, 1917.[2] "The year 1917 saw the re-organisation of the Judicial Department in the Central Provinces. The Courts of the Divisional Judges were abolished and the Province was divided into nine districts under District and Sessions Judges". One of the Sessions Courts was located at Sagar. Thus the District Judge was the highest authority for Civil Justice at the district level. He was empowered to hear civil appeals against the decision of the Subordinate Judges and had original jurisdiction in civil work. Furthermore in 1924, by the

1. *Ibid*, 1885-86, p. 12.
2. *Ibid*, 1917-18, p. 12.

Central Provinces Courts Act (VIII of 1924) the designation of the Subordinate Judge and Moonsiffs was changed into Subordinate Judges of the First Class and Subordinate Judges of Second Class and the pecuniary jurisdiction of the latter was raised to Rs. 5,000. On 7th December 1932, the post of District and Sessions Judge, Sagar was abolished and the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Jabalpur, was extended to Sagar district.

In 1933, the Central Provinces Courts Act, 1917 (I of 1917) was amended whereby Small Cause Courts' powers of Subordinate Judges of First and Second Class were raised to Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 500, respectively and selected Subordinate Judges of the Second Class were also invested with powers to hear insolvency petitions in which the alleged debt did not exceed Rs. 2,000. On the 9th January, 1936, the Court of the Judicial Commissioner was replaced by a chartered High Court for the whole of Central Provinces and Berar with seat at Nagpur.

In 1945 the designation of the court of Subordinate Judges was changed to that of Civil Judges. In 1955 the powers of District Judges were enhanced and they were empowered to hear appeals against the decision of the Civil Judges up to Rs. 10,000. The Tahsildars were invested with powers of extra Civil Judges for trying cases under section 106 of the Central Provinces and Berar Tenancy Act. This Act was subsequently amended and suits for recovery of consent money were also tried by them from 1940. The passing of Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietory Rights (Estates, Mahals and Alienated Lands Act of 1950 was put into operation in 1951 and virtually all cases under the Tenancy Act were stopped. Therefore, the institution of Extra Civil Judge also vanished. Now the Madhya Pradesh Civil Courts Act of 1958 is in force in the district from January, 1959. According to Law Department's Notification No 124039-A-3612-XXI/B. dated the 14th August 1961, the court of District and Sessions Judge has again been created with headquarters at Sagar and comprising Sagar and Damoh revenue districts with effect from the 15th August, 1961.

Administration of Criminal Justice.—The machinery of Criminal Justice in district remained more or less unchanged since 1861 the date of formation of the Central Provinces, till 1873-74. The machinery consisted of Tahsildars residing cheifly in the interior of the district and exercising the powers of Subordinate Magistrates under the Criminal Procedure Code. Similarly, Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners exercised the powers of either subordinate Magistrates or Magistrates: Deputy Commissioners exercised the

power of either Magistrates or else the superior powers under Act, XV of 1862. A Cantonment Joint Magistrate whose decisions were not appealable, also exercised magisterial powers under the Indian Penal Code, a Divisional Commissioner exercised the powers of the Sessions Judge and over all these officers, there was a Judicial Commissioner having the functions of a Sudder or High Court and the powers of sanctioning capital punishment. Besides, these, there were Honorary Magistrates. The table below indicates the designation and posting of different officers in the machinery of Criminal Justice as early as 1861-62 :—

Serial No.	Designation of Officers	Place of Posting
(1)	(2)	(3)
1.	Deputy Commissioner (District Magistrate).	District Headquarters
2.	Cantonment Magistrates. Assistant Commissioners and Extra-Assistant Commissioners.	Do
3.	Tahsildars	Do.
4.	Stipendiary Magistrates	In the interior of the district.
5.	Honorary Magistrates	(1) District Headquarters. (2) Interior of the district.

Source :—Report on the Judicial Administration, (Criminal), of the Central Provinces, 1888, P. 9.

Till 1864 the Divisional Commissioner, Sagar Division with headquarters at Sagar and comprising districts of Betul, Hoshangabad, Damoh and Sagar exercised the powers of a Sessions Judge. But in that year Sagar Commissionership was abolished and the district was placed under the Commissioner of Jabalpur Division whose jurisdiction extended to Sagar.

By Act X 1872 it was declared that the Magistrates of the district when trying important cases should take assistance of Juries consisting of three persons. A new Criminal Procedure Code was put into operation in 1873. It raised the number of Jurors to 5 and defined and enhanced the powers of various classes of Magistrates. This Code also empowered Magistrates, whether stipendiary or honorary to try the cases summarily. Similarly the aggrieved party was given right to appeal in certain cases under section 272 and the powers of Magistrates to enhance punishment on appeal were limited. The Deputy Commissioner, who was the chief magistrate

of the district, was empowered to hear appeals from decisions of Second and Third Class Magistrates. He was also invested with special powers under section 36 of Criminal Procedure Code, to try, as Sessions Court, those cases which were not punishable with death. In 1889-1890 it was decided that Police and Municipal cases should not, as a rule, go to the inexperienced Honorary Magistrates.

Till 1917, the Divisional Commissioner's Court with powers of Sessions for Sagar district was in existence at Jabalpur but with effect from 14th May, 1917, the Divisional Court was abolished and replaced by a separate court of District and Sessions Judge with headquarters at Sagar. From 7th December, 1932, the post of Sessions Judge, Sagar was abolished and the jurisdiction of the Sessions Judge, Jabalpur, was extended to Sagar District also. Appeals, and Revisions against the decisions of the First Class Magistrates in the district which resulted in conviction or imprisonment up to four years were filed in the Court of the Sessions Judge. On 9th January, 1936 the court of Judicial Commissioner was abolished and replaced by a chartered High Court for the whole of Central Provinces and Berar with headquarters at Nagpur. In 1952 the powers of trying cases under the Prevention of Corruption Act were also conferred on the Sessions Judge while from 1955 onwards the appeals and revisions against the decisions of Second Class and Third Class Magistrates were also entertained by the Sessions Court. With effect from 15th August, 1961 the court of District and Sessions Judge was again created with headquarters at Sagar.

Courts of Honorary Magistrates

The year 1862 is signalised by the appointment for the first time of Honorary Magistrates in the district. The system was started because, the Government wanted to display its justness and generosity by admitting various classes of people to a share in the Civil Administration to associate them with British officers in the execution of measures in which all should have a common interest, to induce them to hear and discharge those responsibilities and functions. It was hoped that to invest them with judicial powers would have a double advantage one relating to Civil Administration, and the other relating to people generally and particularly to those selected for such posts.

The Honorary Magistrates were extremely valuable as a body and were of great use in the Criminal Administration of the district.

If they did not exist many tracts of the district would be without a resident Magistrate of any kind. The powers and functions of Honorary Magistrates were further defined in 1888 when a bench of Magistrates was established at the headquarters of every tahsil. In this way Tahsildars were relieved of all petty complaint cases. In the district some of the benches were established at places (Sagar, Rehli and Deori) where there were already Honorary Magistrates sitting singly. In such cases the arrangement made was that this Magistrate should ordinarily sit on the bench "where his experience will be of great value to his fellow Magistrates, and strengthen the bench but that he should also continue to try singly any case which the Deputy Commissioner may make over to him. There can be no doubt that Honorary Magistrates have hitherto valued the privilege of sitting singly and have been disposed to think that to sit on a bench is less honourable position"[1]. The Chief Commissioner pointed out in reply that, "The administration has no wish to deprive experienced Honorary Magistrates altogether of their jurisdiction as single Magistrate that they may still sit to try cases made over to them by the Deputy Commissioner that, so far from its being derogatory to their dignity to sit as members of the benches, their presence on them adds dignity and weight to the proceedings of the benches and that the Administration shows its appreciation of the value of their services, by as it were, entrusting to them the education in judicial work of their less experienced colleagues."[2]

It may be mentioned here that by section 15 of the Criminal Procedure Code, a bench could exercise the powers conferred on a Magistrate of the highest class to which any of its members present and taking part in its proceedings belonged. There was no loss of power in placing on a third class bench a Honorary Magistrate of the Second class who had hitherto sat singly.

ORGANISATION OF COURTS

Set up of Civil Judiciary—

In Sagar district, there were the following sategories of civil courts the number of Judges in each class being shown against the category :—

(1) Court of the District Judge (covers Damoh district also)	1
(2) Courts of Additioal District Judges.	2

1. Report on the Judicial Administration (Criminal) in the Central Provinces, 1887, p. 3.
2. Ibid.

(3) Courts of Civil Judges (Class I and II) 4

(4) Court of Small Causes 1

Court of District Judge.—It is the principal Civil Court of original jurisdiction. The District Judge hears appeals from decisions of the Civil Judges up to the value of Rs. 10,000. Appeals in suits valued in excess of Rs. 10,000 are entertainable by the High Court.

Courts of Additional District Judge.—There are two Additional District Judges in the district. The ordinary pecuniary jurisdiction of these courts is up to Rs. 10,000 in cases of original jurisdiction and Rs. 5,000 in cases of appellate jurisdiction.

The jurisdiction of the First Additional District Judge extends to Sagar, Rehli, and Banda tahsils, while that of the Second Additional District Judge covers Khurai tahsils. They try cases of civil appeals, up to the value of Rs. 5,000 and regular suits and tenancy suits of value over Rs. 10,000.

The court of Civil Judge, II class at Sagar has jurisdiction over section 9 of the Madhya Pradesh Civil Courts Act, 1958 to try cases of regular civil suits and tenancy suits from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000.

The court of Civil Judge, II class at Sagar has jurisdiction over Sagar and Banda tahsils and is empowered to try regular suits and tenancy suits of a value up to Rs. 5,000. Another court of the Second Class Civil Judge is at Rehli and has jurisdiction over the whole of Rehli tahsil, while a third Civil Judge's Court is at Khurai having jurisdiction over that tahsil.

Small Causes Court.—The cases under Small Causes Court's Act are tried by the Civil Judge First Class, Civil Judge Second Class and Additional District Judge.

The jurisdiction of this Court is divided as follows.—

Serial No. (1)	Name of Court (2)	Jurisdiction (3)
1	Additional District Judge	Rs. 501 to Rs. 1,000.
2	Civil Judge I Class	Rs. 201 to Rs. 500.
3	Civil Judge II Class	Upto Rs. 200.

Supervision and Control of Civil Judiciary.—The District Judge is also the Sessions Judge by virtue of his office. Similarly, all senior Judges with unlimited pecuniary powers are generally ex-officio Additional District Judges exercising jurisdiction in courts

of District Judge. The courts of all Civil Judges and Additional District Judges are periodically inspected by the District and Sessions Judge.

Civil Cases Disposed of.—The table below indicates the civil cases decided during the period 1953 to 1959. These cases have been divided into two categories (a) Original, and (b) Appellate. Both of these categories have been further sub-divided into, (1) Regular, and (2) Miscellaneous.

Number of Cases Decided (Civil)

Year	Original		Appellate	
	Regular	Miscellaneous	Regular	Miscellaneous
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1953	2,405	598	115	13
1954	2,039	731	293	28
1955	3,192	639	141	32
1956	2,680	788	293	51
1957	2,729	768	100	15
1958	2.832	616	44	7
1959	2.597	638	118	55

Source.—District and Sessions Judge, Jabalpur

Nyaya Panchayat.

The total number of Nyaya Panchayats in the district is 59. The Nyaya Panchayats were established in the district in 1947 following the enactment of the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayat Act, 1946 (Act I of 1947). With the establishment of these Nyaya Panchayats, the institution of Honorary Magistrates was abolished in 1947. The primary aim of the Nyaya Panchayats was "to preserve the association of the people with the administration of Justice. These bodies will function within the frame work of ordinary laws and enable the representatives of the people to participate in the administration of justice without endangering the standard of efficiency. They will also help in speedy disposal of civil and criminal cases of a petty nature"[1].

1. Towards Peace and Progress (1946-47).

These Nyaya Panchayats replaced village Panchayats established in the year 1926 by Act II of 1920 and enjoyed wider judicial powers than the village Panchayats.

Constitution of Nyaya Panchayats.—Every Nyaya Panchayat has a membership of not less than five Panchas. These members are selected out of the members of the various Gram Panchayats falling under the jurisdiction of the Nyaya Panchayat. The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman are the important office bearers of the Nyaya Panchayat. The Chairman is appointed by the Government while the Deputy Chairman is nominated by the Sarpanch. The Chairman or in his absence, the Deputy Chairman presides over the meeting of the Nyaya Panchayat.

Powers of Nyaya Panchayats.—The Nyaya Panchayats are empowered to try both civil and criminal cases. Regarding civil cases their jurisdiction is lmited to entertainment of suits and cases up to the value of Rs. 100 with certain exceptions mentioned in section 68 of the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act. In section 69 of the Act are listed the types of criminal cases that are triable by a Nyaya Panchayat. The decisions of the Nyaya Panchayats are not apealable but the applications for revision are entertained by the District Judge in civil cases and Sessions Judge in criminal cases.

Set-up of Criminal Judiciary.

The Courts which tried criminal cases in the district till 1960 were the following :—

(1) Court of the District Magistrate (Powers exercised by the Collector).

(2) Courts of the Additional District Magistrate (Powers exercised by Senior Deputy Collectors).

(3) Court of the District and Sessions Judge.

(4) Courts of Additional District and Sessions Judge.

(5) Courts of Stipendiary Magistrates—

(a Courts of Magistrates, First Class (Powers exercised by Deputy Collectors and selected Tahsildars).

(b) Courts of Magistrates, Second Class (Power exercised by Deputy Collectors. Tahsildars and selected Naib-Tahsildars).

(c) Courts of Magistrate, Third Class (Powers exercised mostly by Naib-Tahsildar).

(d) Courts of Judge Magistrates.

(e) Courts of Sub-Divisional Magistrate (Powers exercised by Sub-Divisional Officers).

Court of District Magistrate.—The District Magistrate was the highest court in the district for both civil and criminal cases till 1900. He actually tried very important cases in original jurisdiction and acted more as a court of appeal. The question of the extent to which the District Magistrates should themselves take part in the disposal of cases was fully dealt with in the Government Resolution on the Report for 1886 It said that the Chief Commissioner did not expect Deputy Commissioners to take up a large amount of original criminal work.

> "No doubt (it was observed), it is an advantage that Deputy Comissioner should occasionally try important criminal cases, and it is satisfactory to observe that they have, as a body during the past year taken up a fair number of such cases; but it is far more necessary for the District Magistrate to look closely into the work of his Police and to inspect regularly, frequently, and thoroughly, the cases of his subordinate Magistrates. In light districts the Deputy Commissioner ought to do a fair amount of the original criminal work, and in all districts the Deputy Commissioner should do enough to enable him to know practically how the Police get up their cases He should also keep on his own file important cases especially any in which race feelings or caste prejudices are deeply moved. But he must not allow his original Judicial work to interfere with his duty as the centre of the district executive in all departments"[1].

The importance of keeping an effective hold on the district administration was stressed by the Government of India, when they remarked that, "The primary function of the District Officer lies more in obtaining a complete control over every branch of administration than in trying cases"[2]

Till 1955, the District Magistrate was empowered to entertain appeals and revisions against the decisions of Magistrates of Second Class and Third Class The usual system prevailling was that in order to relieve the burden of his judicial work, the District Magistrate was given the help of a senior magistrate of First Class who was empowered to hear such appeals and revisions. But after the

1. Report on the Judicial Administration (Criminal) of the Central Provinces, 1887, p. 4

2. *Ibid*

amendment of Act No. XXVI of Criminal Procedure Code in 1955, appeals against the decision of II class and III class Magistrates are taken up by the Sessions Court direct.

Court of Additional District Magistrate.—At present there is one court of Additional District Magistrate who tries various criminal cases transferred to his file by the District Magistrate from time to time. This court was created mainly with the aim of relieving the case work of the District Magistrate. The powers of Additional District Magistrate are exercised by a senior Deputy Collector.

Court of the District and Sessions Judge.—Formerly Sagar district was under the jurisdiction of District and Sessions Judge, Jabalpur. But with effect from 15th August, 1961, a court of the District and Sessions Judge was located at Sagar. This court exercises jurisdiction over criminal cases coming from Sagar and Damoh districts.

Courts of Additional Sessions Judge—There are two courts of Additional Sessions Judges at Sagar, one of them being the First Additional Sessions Judge, and the other Second Additional Sessions Judge. They try such criminal cases as are made over to them by the District and Sessions Judge from time to time.

Courts of Stipendiary Magistrates—The number of Stipendiary Magistrates was 37 in 1959. Since the introduction of the present system and till 1st February, 1962, except for the appellate revisional and committed cases, the remaining criminal cases work is being done by Revenue Officers who are invested with Magisterial powers and are called as Stipendiary Magistrates. Of the officers generally Assistant Collectors and Deputy Collectors are designated as First Class Magistrates with powers of summary trial and trial under section 30 of Criminal Procedure Code. Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars, are generally concerned with magisterial powers of Second class and Third class, respectively. Judge-Magistrates and Sub-Divisional Magistrates also fall under the category of stipendiary Magistrates, and are vested with the powers of First Class Magistrates.

Court of Judge-Magistrate.—There were four Judge-Magistrates in the district in 1960. The institution of Judge-Magistrates came into being in the district in 1950. Their duties were exclusively limited to trial of Criminal cases relating to First Class Magistrates, summary trial, section 30 of Criminal Procedure Code and committed criminal cases. They are not required to do revenue or any other

administrative work. This class of Judge-Magistrates was instituted **as a first step towards the separation of the Judiciary from the executive.** A selected number of Magistrates considered qualified for this work from among the Deputy Collectors and Tahsildars were appointed as Judge-Magistrates.

Court of Sub-Divisional Magistrates.—There are four Courts of Sub-Divisional Magistrates in the district, which are located at Sagar **Khurai, Rehli and Banda, the headquarters of the four tahsils of this** district. They are vested with the powers of a First Class Magistrate.

CASES DISPOSED BY THE COURTS

Criminal Cases.

Total Number of Offences Reported—The total number of **offences under the Indian Penal Code and Special and Local Laws** reported during 1959 was 7,076 as against 7,419 in 1958 and 4,930 in 1957. The distribution of offences reported under Indian Penal **Code and Special and Local Laws are as under:—**

Serial No.	Nature of Offences	Years			
		1957		1958	
(1)	(2)	(3)		(4)	
1	Under I. P. C.	1,419	4,930	1,410	4917
2	Special and Local Laws	3,511		6,009	
3	Code of Criminal Procedure (Under Chapter VIII)	153		151	
4	Breach of other laws	3,358		5,858	
	Total	8,441		13,428	

Serial No.	Nature of Offence	Years			
		1959		1960	
(1)	(2)	(5)		(6)	
1	Under I. P. C.	1,480	7,076	1,626	8,649
2	Special and Local Laws	5,596		7,023	
3	Code of Criminal Procedure (Under Chapter VIII)	179		132	
4	Breach of other laws	5,417		6,891	
	Total	14,272		15,872	

Source :—District Magistrate, Sagar.

Criminal Cases Disposed of.—The total number of cases disposed of by all Magistrates in 1959 was 7,772 involving 12,557 persons as against 6,158 cases involving 9,803 persons in 1958 and 4,812 cases involving 8,112 persons in 1957. The number of pending cases remaining at the end of the year was 1,682 involving 3,331 persons in 1959, 2,409 cases involving 4,288 persons in 1958 1,150 cases involving 2,510 persons in 1957.

Separation of Executive from Judiciary

The story of the separation of the Judiciary from the Executive dates back to about a century ago and the demand for this reform had been incessant. It was stated as early as in 1928-29, "Another persistent demand has been for the separation of the judiciary from the executive. This suggestion was first considered by the Retrenchment Committee in 1921 and has been the subject of more than one resolution in the Legislative Council. The latest resolution in January 1928 recommended that immediate steps should be taken to have the judicial functions of the Government separated from the executive functions"[1].

The provisions contained in Part IV of the Constitution of India relating to Subordinate Courts contemplete that each State should have a distinct class of service to be known as the Judicial Service which could consist execlusively of persons intended to fill the posts of District Judges and other Civil Judicial posts inferior to the post of District Judge. In keeping with the directive, appointments, postings and promotions of District Judges are made by the Governor in consultation with the High Court. Officers other than the District Judge are appointed by the Governor in accordance with the rules framed by the Governor in consultation with the High Court and Public Service Commission. The control over District Courts, and courts subordinate to them is vested in the High Court. The control includes the power of posting and promotion and the grant of leave to officers other than the District Judges, in the manner laid down in Article 235 of the Constitution.

Thus so far as the subordinate civil judiciary is concerned sepa ration is already ensured by the Constitution and this is also the case on the criminal side at the level of the Courts of Sessions. The question, therefore, remained about extending the principle of separation to the Magistracy, and this is what the directive principle con tained in Article 50 purports to enjoin. Keeping in view this directive in Sagar district (as well as in other districts of Madhya Pradesh) some executive officers who had been detailed as whole-time Magistrates on the judicial side were designated as Judge-Magistrates to

1. "Working of Reformed Government in Central Provinces and Berar" 1928-29.

distinguish them from those who function as Executive Magistrates. The Judge-Magistrates were, however, under the control of the District Magistrate though their work was periodically inspected by the District and Sessions Judge also.

The final separation of the Executive from the Judiciary was implemented in this district on 1st February, 1962. This has resulted in the following changes:—

(1) The District Magistrates. Sub-Divisional Magistrates and other Executive Magistrates are prohibited from exercising powers other than those relating to prevention of crimes. The powers mentioned in those schedules are sufficient to enable the District Magistrate to discharge adequately his responsibility regarding the maintenance of Law and Order and prevention and supression of crime.

(2) By virtue of their position under Code of Criminal Procedure, the District Magistrates are required to function as the co-ordinating authority in respect of the criminal work in the district. In this capacity, it is the duty of the District Magistrate to keep a watch over the processes of the prosecution in the Courts.

(3) Civil Judges of the First Class are appointed as Additional District Magistrates under section 10 (2) of the Code of Criminal Procedure These Additional District Magistrates are responsible for the prompt disposal of of the pending work in the court of the subordinate Magistrates. They allot the work amongst the Magistrates in consultation with the Sessions Judge. When directed by the District and Sessions Judge, they also inspect the Courts of the subordinate Magistrates (Judicial) from time to time and keep themselves in touch with the difficulties and problems of the Presiding Officers.

LEGAL PROFESSION AND BAR ASSOCIATION

The growth of legal profession coincides with the origin of the Judiciary in the district. "In the Saugor-Nerbudda territories, regular native pleaders, attorneys (*vakeels and mukhtyars*) have been allowed."[1]. Admission into the ranks of the prefession was limited to those who had passed the prescribed examination. The Bar consisted of Law graduates from Indian and foreign universities and

1 Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1862, p. 19.

advocates of Indian High Courts who were granted Sanads without requiring any other test of proficiency. With a view to binding the members of the bar to the faithful discharge of their duties, a form of oath was prescribed by the Government to which all pleaders and advocates were asked to subscribe.

Bar Associations

There is only one association of pleaders and advocates in the district and it is called the Sagar Bar Association. This Association was founded on 25th June, 1862 with its initial strength of six members. In the year 1936 the Bar was re-organized consequent on the creation of the High Court, and the long standing division of pleaders into two grades—first grade, second grade was abolished. The present membership of the Association is 48. Any person who is a registered pleader or advocate can be enrolled as a member of Sagar Bar Association on the payment of Rs. 25 as annual membership fee.

INCIDENCE OF CRIMES

The table below gives an idea of some of the more important crimes in the district during the four years 1957-60. The crimes prevalent in the district are mainly in respect of offences against the public tranquillity, affecting decency and moral, murder, attempt at murder, offences affecting life, hurt, wrongful restraint and wrongful confinement, kidnapping and forcible abduction, theft, criminal breach of trust, cheating, simple trespass, counterfeiting of notes or coins, offences relating to local and special laws, offences against contempt of lawful authority or public servants, offences effecting public health, safety, and convenience, criminal force and assault and offences relating to documents and falsification of accounts:—

Serial No.	Class of Crime	Years	Pending from last Year	Reported During Year	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	Offences against Public Tranquillity.	1957	60	152	212
		1958	74	96	170
		1959	03	117	220
		1960	61	139	200

(1)	(2)	(3)		(4)	(5)	(6)
2	Offences against Public Health, Safety, etc.	1957	..	14	97	111
		1958	..	33	90	123
		1959	..	33	277	310
		1960	..	44	267	311
3	Offences against Human Body	1957	..	165	422	607
		1958	..	172	373	545
		1959	..	213	438	51
		1960	..	210	492	707
4	Offences against Property ..	1957	..	324	547	871
		1958	..	200	606	806
		1959	..	242	470	712
		1960	..	203	605	808
5	Offence under Other Laws ..	1957	..	439	2,917	33,56
		1958		533	4,727	5,260
		1959	..	1,365	4,557	5,922
		1960	..	.. 939	6,231	7,170

Source: District Magistarate, Sagar.

Offences against Public Tranquillity.—The offences included under this head are all those defined under chapter VIII of the Indian Penal Code, e.g., (a) unlawful assembly and afray, (b) rioting and promoting enimity between classes. The highest total number for disposed cases under this head was in 1959 when 220 cases were pending as against 212 in 1957, 200 in 1960 and 170 in 1958.

Offences against Public Health, Safety, etc.—This included offences defined under Chapter XIV of Indian Penal Code and includes (a) offences against public health, safety and convenience, (b) offences affecting decency and morals. The highest number of cases was in 1960, i e 311 as against 310 in 1950, 123 in 1958 and 111 in 1957.

Offences against Human Body.—This includes offences defined in chapter XVI of Indian Penal Code. e.g. (a) murder, attempt to murder, (b) offences affecting life, (c) causing miscarriage, injuries to unborn child and concealment of births, (d) hurt with aggravating circumstances, (e) other cases of hurt, (f) wrongful restraint and wronful confinements, (g) criminal force and assault, (h) kidnapping and forcible abduction, (i) rape, etc The higest number of offences was 707 in 1960, 651 in 1959, in 1957 and 545 in 1958.

Offences against Property.—The offences under this head are those defined in chapter XVII of I. P. C. and include (a) theft, (b) cattle theft, (c) robbery and dacoity, (d) criminal misappropriation of property, (e) criminal breach of trust, (f) recovering stolen property, (g) cheating, (h) fraudulent deeds and disposition of property, (i) mischief, (j) simple trespass and (k) aggravated trespass. The largest number of offences under this head was 871 in 1957 as against 808 in 1960, 806 in 1958 and 712 in 1959.

Offences under Special Laws—This includes many Acts important among them being (a) offences against Acts relating to Excise, Irrigation, Local Self-Government, Muncipalities, Primary Education, village Sanitation, Police, Railways, etc, (b) offences against Cattle Trespass Act, (c) offences against Cantonments Act, etc, (d) offences against Motor Vehicles Act, (e) Child Marriage Act, (d) Offences against Dangerous Drugs Act, etc. The highest number of offences under this head was 9,170 in 1960 against 5,922 in 1959, 5,260 in 1958 and 3,356 in 1957.

Cognisable Crimes—The following table shows the details regarding the cognisable crimes in Sagar district during the period from 1951 to 1959:—

Cognisable Crimes

Year	Cases Reported	Cases Investigated	Cases Sent up for Trial	Persons Tried	Persons Acquitted or Discharged	Persons Convicted
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1951	6,574	4,361	2,853	10,150	621	4,699
1952	6,366	4,313	2,915	9,207	821	3,647
1953	5,920	3,833	2,583	8,085	926	3,462
1954	3,807	3,632	2,263	2,362	1,012	1,350
1955	4,077	3,972	2,823	3'009	1,036	2,873
1956	3,013	3,634	2,642	2,866	812	1,914
1957	3'735	3,537	2,165	4,246	1,343	2,903
1958	3,744	3,449	1,567	3,473	611	2,677
1959	3,870	4,175	1,949	5,054	1,043	3,835

Source: Superintendent of Police, Sagar.

Important Classes of Crimes

Year	Incidence of Crimes									
	Dacoity	Robbery	Murder	Riot	Burglary	Cattle Theft	Ordinary Theft	Kid-napping	Miscl. Crim.	Total. I. P. C
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1948	32	39	37	79	762	74	1,494	11	447	2,974
1949	19	33	37	83	609	97	1,143	15	513	2,549
1950	19	55	22	100	536	84	964	15	645	2,440
1951	17	38	28	80	841	67	951	5	484	2,511
1952	16	36	33	85	591	86	857	8	711	2,423
1953	17	26	35	66	501	69	800	7	561	2,082
1954	28	20	36	78	364	82	870	17	578	2,145
1955	18	39	28	105	361	43	731	13	675	2,013
1956	46	114	36	145	478	36	947	13	666	2,481
1957	23	62	22	72	385	32	797	10	806	2,209
1958	27	24	31	82	371	57	786	23	835	2,236
1959	11	35	27	76	376	45	695	23	736	2 024
1960	21	38	38	87	384	54	668	13	723	2,026

SOURCE: Superintendent of Police, Sagar.

Dacoity.—The control of this problem has been one of the major problems of law and order in the district. The most affected tahsils are Banda and Khurai. In addition to the normal district police there are two companies of Special Armed Force working on the anti-dacoity opperations.

The menace of dacoity was not serious in the years before 1948. But the situation began to deteriorate in that year. Steady progress of anti-dacoity operations have succeeded in keeping down the number of cases since then.

Robbery.—The offences under this crime have also been effectively controlled by the Police. There were 144 cases of robbery, the highest figure, in 1956. Since then the offences under this category have registered a gradual fall.

Murders.—This type of crime is more prevalent among the lower castes such as Lodhis, Ahirs, Kurmis, Gonds etc. Murders are often committed over a dispute of landed property or due to sudden provocation. During the post-Independence period some murders were committed by members of dociat gangs and the victims in all such cases were either Police informers or those who had failed to pay ransom. Murders also generally result from vendetta or feud.

Burglary.—This category of crime is mostly attributed to local residents and even among them surveillees and ex-surveillees are more notorious. Crimes by outside criminals in this regard are comparatively few. Among the "locals" are gangs of Ghories and Lodhies of Khamaria village in Surkhi police station. Those from outside are gangs from neighbouring districts of Guna and Vidisha and from Lalitpur.

The table below gives the details of the burglaries since 1956.

Burglary Cases

Year	Total Cases Reported	Investi-gated	Convicted	Pending	Total Value of Property Stolen (Rs.)	Average Value per Case (Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1956	478	478	59	65	60,787	125
1957	385	385	41	51	72,101	187
1958	371	367	33	56	92,073	248
1959	376	373	29	53	1,16,671	309
1960	384	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

Cattle Thefts.—This type of crime is mainly attributed to local miscreants. They drive away cattle when they get a favourable opportunity and sell them off at Khurai, Garhakota or Damoh cattle markets. The highest number of cattle thefts (97) was reported in 1949 and since then the crimes under this head have gradually decreased with the result that only 45 offences were reported in 1959, but they rose to 54 in 1960.

Ordinary Thefts.—Cases of thefts of cycles, bazar-thefts, ghat and fair thefts, etc., are quite common in the district and are attributed to local criminals.

The following table shows the details of Crime—

Ordinary Thefts

Year	Total Reported	Investigated	Convicted	Pending	Total Value of Property Stolen	Average Value per Case
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1956	947	769	109	52	52,374	54
1957	787	619	116	58	81,892	104
1958	786	616	125	72	52,996	67
1959	695	532	94	62	71,003	102

Source: Superintendent of Police, Sagar.

Recovery of Stolen Property.—The table below shows the number of cases and the value of property stolen as well as recovered in the district during the period 1956—59. The largest number of cases of stolen property were reported in the year 1956 when 1,537 thefts were committed. The recovery of stolen property was possible in about one-third of the total number of cases, except in 1956, when it was possible to recover stolen property only in 28.7 per cent of cases.

Regarding the value of stolen property the table shows that the value was the highest in 1956 when property worth Rs. 2,85,295 was stolen. In 1959 this decreased to Rs. 2,40,615. The highest per-

centage of property recovered to property stolen was 21.8 in the year 1958 :—

Property Stolen and Recovered

Year	No. in which Property Stolen	No. in which Property Recovered	Percentage of Col. (3) to Col. (2)	Value of Property Stolen	Value of Property Recovered	Percentage of Col. (6) to Col. (5)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
[illegible]	1,537	448	28.7	2,85,[illegible]	56,416	[illegible]
1957	1,255	450	35.5	2,18,859	55,875	[illegible].4
1958	1,237	424	34.2	2,21,695	48,522	21.8
1959	1,047	349	33.3	2,40,615	51,878	2[illegible].3

Source: Superintendent of Police, Sagar.

Juvenile Delinquency.—This crime is not much in evidence in this district as far as recorded cases show. The Table below shows the crime situation for the year 1958 to 1959 :—

Juvenile Delinquency

Year ..	According to Age Groups			
	7 to 12 Years	12 to 17 Years	17 to 21 Years	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1958	15	39	232	276
1959	11	56	105	172

Source: Superintendent of Police, Sagar.

Despite variation among the different age groups, the general trend of juvenile crime, as revealed by the table is one of gradual decline.

ORGANISATION OF POLICE FORCE

The earlier attempts to organise the police force were made by Mr. Mansell, the first Commissioner of the Nagpur territory, in 1854. Station Houses and Outposts were located at convenient centres. The Chief reporting agency was the Malguzars while the Zamindars had their own police. The system served the needs of normal conditions for a time but could not stand the strain of general disorder. The Station House Officer or Daroga had no superior officer except the Deputy Commissioner who visited Station House for inspection only when he could. There was thus, slackness in supervision and extortion and corruption were

rampant. The problems presented by the supression of *Thaggee*. however, exposed the inefficiency of the system and Colonel Taylor was sent down from Calcutta to Nagpur in 1860 to report, and set up a general police organization in the newly constituted Central Provinces as contemplated in other British territories in India. The present system was broadly the result of the above report of Colonel Taylor who was appointed the first Inspector-General of Police and each of the districts was placed under the charge of a District Superintendent of Police. The first Police Administration Report was written in 1861 after the district merged in the Central Provinces.

The reorganization of the police administration which was brought into force in 1861 led to the constitution of a separate Department of Civil Police consisting of a formally enrolled constabulary, distributed over the district and placed under the overall control of an Inspector-General of Police. Village watchmen were retained as they are today, not as members of the force, though partially placed under the control of the local police officers, but as servants of the village communities, the head-men of which were usually bound to assist in the prevention and detection of crime.

In 1861 construction of Station Houses was started, but it was only in 1897 that the task of construction Head Quarter Lines and buildings was transferred to the P.W.D. Prior to this date police men constructed their own quarters. In 1869 a probationary system of 6 months duration was introduced for the newly recruited constables and passing of the lowest standard of examination was insisted upon. In 1869 a training School for Moharrirs was opened at Sagar, which was later abolished in 1891. The Zamindars had their own police until 1883. A prosecution branch was established in 1893 followed by circle system in 1905. In 1905, the Police Training College was established at Sagar. The administration of the Motor Vehicles Rules was handed over to the Police in 1926.

In accordance with the Police Act of 1861, the Police administration of the State has been divided into two-general police districts, namely the Provincial Police District and the Railway Police District. The District Superintendent of Police who generally belongs to the Indian Police Service, is the head of the Police Organization in the district. He is assisted by five gazetted officers. His work is supervised by the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Central Range, with headquarters at Jabalpur.

The following table gives the strength and cost of the District Police in Sagar from 1954 to 1960 :—

Strength & Cost of Civil Police

Year	D. S. P., A.S.P. & Dy. S. Ps.	Inspectors S. Is, D. P. Ps.	Sergeants and H. Cs.	Foot Consts.	Total	Annual cost Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1954	3	65	175	920	1,163	12,07,583
1955	5	65	179	951	1,200	12,25,986
1956	4	46	121	652	823	15,86,935
1957	5	46	124	659	834	10,39,453
1958	5	75	119	660	859	11,10,982
1959	5	76	119	660	860	11,62,930
1960	5	76	119	660	860	11,82,894

Sources:—1. Reports of Police Administration of C. P. and M. P.

2. Superintendent of Police, Sagar.

NOTE :—Figures for 1954 and 1955 are inclusive of Damoh district.

For a systematic and speedy functioning of the police, the district has been divided into four areas. and each is under the charge of a gazetted officer of the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police. The following table indicates the distribution of work between different officers and the strength of their subordinate staff: —

Dy. S. P. Sagar and Banda		Dy. S. P. Khurai and H. Q. Lines		Dy. S. P. Rehli and C. I. D. Branch		Dy. S. P. City Office	
(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)	
Circle Inspector	2.	Circle Inspector	1	Circle Inspector	1	Circle Inspector	1
Sub-Inspector	9.	Resident	1	Inspectors	3	S. I.	4.
A.S. I.	3.	Sub-Inspector	1	S. Is. A. S. I.	14 9	A. S. I.	9,
Hd. Constables	21	Subedars	20	Hd. Constables	26	Hd. Constables	21
Constables	81	A. S. I. Hd. Cons. Constables	8 56 362	Constables	77	Constables	151

The district is further divided into a number of Police stations which have been conveniently demarcated on the basis of incidence

of crime area and population and located in important villages, towns and cities. A Police Station looks after the policing of 100—200 villages in an area of about 150—400 square miles. The staff varies from one Sub-Inspector, two Head Constables and six Constables for minor Police Stations, to two Sub-Inspectors, four Head Constables and 18 Constables for tahsil Police Stations. Circle Inspectors of Police have a charge generally co-extensive with the tahsil boundaries consisting of four to seven Police Stations. Watch and Ward duties in the villages are performed by the village officers known as Patels who are assisted by Kotwars or Mahars. The Sub-Inspector and the Head Constables *Gashti* are the only two police officers meant for patrolling the village although constables may be employed on special occassions for this purpose.

Classification of Police Force

The Police personnel at district head-quarters is divided into five categories: —

District Executive Force.—The District Executive Force is the most important part of the police as it deals with daily problems relating to law and order and comes into close contact with people whom it is expected to help in all matters of security and peace. It is utilised for duty at the Police Stations There are 21 Police Stations and five out-posts in the district.

In Sagar tahsil there are Police Stations at Nariaoli, Jaisinghnagar, Rahatgarh, Surkhi and Sanoda; in Banda tahsil at Banda Behrol, Baraitha, Shahgarh; in Khurai tahsil at Khurai, Bina Bangarh. Malthone. Bandri; and in Rehli tahsil at Rehli, Garhakota, Deori, Maharajpur and Kesli. In the city we have police stations at City Kotwali and Cantonment while out-posts are at Hirapur. Bamora, Kunjia, Khimlasa, and Tadakhas. Each Police Station is under the charge of a Sub-Inspector called the Station House Officer assisted by one more second officer, Head Constables, Moharrirs or Station Writers and a numbers of Constables. The police in Sagar city is under the City Superintendent of Police.

Special Armed Force.—The force is a provincial reserve of police meant to assist the district force in maintaining order and controlling disturbances. Armed and trained reserves were first inaugurated in district head-quarters in 1890. In 1911 they were located at Nagpur, Amraoti, Raipur, Hoshangabad, Jabalpur and Sagar. The force at Sagar was four Head Constables and 50 men. Now, the strength of Special Armed Force stationed in Sagar is one

company for district duties and two companies which are deployed in anti-dacoity operations.

Railway Police.—The Railway Police is employed in maintaining law and order at Railway stations and investigating offences which occur there or on running trains. About two-thirds of their cost is borne by the Railway Administration. This force came into existence in 1867 on the Nagpur Branch of the G I. P. Railway and was under a Railway Superintendent of Police who had jurisdiction over the whole line. Later it was under the respective District Superintendents of Police through whose jurisdiction the tract lay. In 1908 the Railway Police became a separate body with a Superintendent of their own In 1917 a separate Deputy Inspector-General was appointed for Railways and Crimes The Railway Police in Sagar district is under control of Superintendent, Railway Police, Jabalpur. There is one G.R P. Police Station at Sagar and another at Bina Railway Station Each of these Police Stations is under a Sub-Inspector

Anti-Dacoity Operations.—As a result of continued efforts the police have successfully reduced the frequency of dacoity in the district. The factors responsible for its prevalance are the ready availablity of hideouts in the bordering areas, the difficult terrain and the dense forests which help the outlaws to slip away from pursuits.

Since 1947 the Sagar Police has been able to liquidate 19 notorious gang leaders who had been harrassing the people As a result of the successful operations by the Police, dacoit gangs of Devisingh, Murat Singh and Ranjit Singh which used to be a terror in the district before 1955 have not been able to commit any serious crime since then. The entire gang of Ranjit Singh was liquidated during 1957 and he himself was shot dead by Ramdina Kachhi, a member of the gang, on 14th June, 1957. During 1958 another notorious dacoit Fodal was rounded up along with his associates Another notorious dacoit called Chali Raja who had a special fancy for nose chopping was killed during police encounter in June, 1960.

Home Guards.—The scheme of Home Guards came into force in this district in 1948 after the enactment of the Central Provinces and Berar Home Guards Act, 1947. Under the scheme able-bodied adults between the ages of 19 and 35 years are enrolled and imparted the basic training in art of self-defence so that in times of disorder they might act as secondary to the police. The objects of the organisation

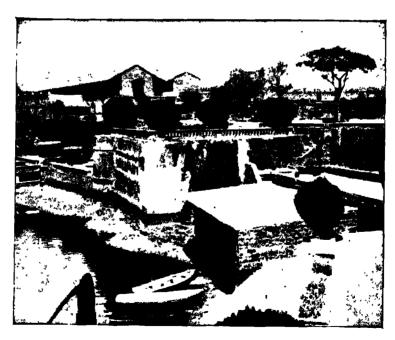
are (1) to ensure internal security, (2) to raise the morale of the citizens by familiarising them with the military training so that they may be able to serve the State as a second line of defence in an emergency, (3) to train Home Guards by a practical course of corporate life in the training centres so as to enable them to be model citizens and to help improve the social life of the community. Thus the Home Guards form a well disciplined corps of social workers actively assisting in the promotion of public security, public health, sanitation, education and social uplift in the villages and towns.

The scheme was implemented in this district in August 1948. The Company Commandent is the Head of the Organisation in the district. He is assisted in the efficient performance of his duties by two instructors who are posted at two headquarters of the Sub-Divisional Offices. Such places in the district are Sagar and Khurai. A training camp is held at these places for rural Home Guards and 24 trainees are recruited in each batch The period of training for the Home Guards is three months. Thus, four batches are trained in one year in each of these centres. Till now 950 persons have been trained as Home Guards in the district.

Police Training College

The Sagar Police Training College is the oldest institution of its kind in Madhya Pradesh. The College was established in 1905, in the old Sagar fort. This fort which had played a conspicuous part in the history of this region, was handed over by the Army to the civil administration to house the Police Training College in 1905. The College, with Mr. G. W. Gayer as its first principal, has gained wide-spread reputation for imparting training to Police Sub-Inspectors and other police officers and was catering to the needs not only of the old Central Provinces, but also of the adjoining states like Holkar State, Bhopal, Gwalior, Kathiawar, Rajputana, Rewa, Orissa and Hyderabad for training their Police staff. This institution was upgraded into a College in 1936 during the Principalship of Mr F. L. Tragens, I. P. During his tenure of six years he caused noteworthy changes and modifications in the Fort buildings. He laid out terraced gardens, and built a common room and library buildings.

Besides providing training to the Sub-Inspectors, the College also imparts training to Police prosecutors and certain other Gazetted Officers. The College is under the direct control of the Inspector General of Police. The Principal is an officer of the rank of District Superintendent of Police, who is assisted by a Head Master of the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police.

Sagar Fort.

Police Training College in Sagar Fort.

The College is equipped with facilities for practical training and has a small museum which contains interesting exhibits pertaining to crime. In this museum, there are various charts and photographs to demonstrate different types of crimes and indicate the possible methods which should be employed for successful investigation.

JAILS AND LOCK-UPS

District Jail

The Civil Surgeon of the district is the *ex-Officio* Superintendent of the District Jail, Sagar, and is the Head of Prison organisation in the district. A subordinate staff has been provided for the efficient management and administration of the Jail affiairs in this district. He is assisted by a Deputy Jailor, an Assistant Jailor and an Assistant Medical Officer. There is also a teacher and a Reformist Preacher to help in the rehabilitation of prisoners. A staff of one Head Warder and 18 Warders is provided in the District Jail.

All the officers and staff of the Jail are provided with free residential quarters, while the class IV staff is also given free uniforms.

Convicts who behave well are promoted as convict main warder and convict warder. They help the regular staff in the supervision of prisoners Convict warders are paid a salary of Rs. a per month and are provided with a uniform, different from that of the regular prisoners. They are allowed to cook, eat and sleep separately from the prisoners, but are supervised by paid warder staff.

There is only one Jail in Sagar district which is located in Sagar town There are lock-ups at Khurai, Rehli and Banda, for keeping the prisoners under trail. Generally only C class prisoners are kept in this jail, though a special ward also exists for A and B class prisoners in the jail.

Welfare of Prisoners.—When a convict is put inside the prison, his personal clothing is withdrawn and he is provided with the jail uniform, bedding and utensils—his personal clothes are stored after they have been washed and numbered. They are returned back to the convict when his term expires. Prisoners are medically examined by a doctor, and then allotted work in a particular trade according to aptitude and knowledge.

Education.—The jail authorities have appointed one teacher for teaching prisoners. He also instructs them in games like volley-ball, badminton, chess, carrom and *kabaddi* etc. In addition,

prisoners are encouraged to take part in cultural activities and are provided with facilities for staging dramas, etc.

A reformist preacher has also been appointed who delivers lectures to prisoners on religion and ethics so as to reform them. To some extent he also tries to solve their emotional and other problems which may be the roots of their criminal acts.

Visitors.—The visitors to the jail are official as well as non-official. The official visitors are Commissioner, Jabalpur Division, the District and Sessions Judge, Sagar, the District Magistrate, D.I.G. Police, Sub-Divisional Magistrates, Deputy Director of Agriculture and the District Education Officer. A list of non-official visitors is prepared and published in the M. P. Gazette. They hold office for a term of one year.

The visitors inspect the jail building, over-crowding of prisoners, drainage, water and sanitary arrangement, food, vegetable, adequacy of clothing and bedding, urinals and latrines, etc. Their remarks are recorded in a visitor's book which is maintained in the jail.

Prisoners in the Jail.—The following table shows the population in the district jail for the period 1951 to 1959. The table also indicates the number of male and female prisoners already in the jail at the beginning of the year, received during the year, discharged during the year and remaining at the end of the year.

The highest number of prisoners under custody was in 1955 when 237 prisoners were, in this jail, carried over from the previous year. Out of this number 224 were males and 13 were females. In 1959, the number had gone down to 195 out of which 189 were males and six females.

The number of prisoners received during a year was the highest in 1954 when 1,257 prisoners were admitted out of whom 1,205 were males and 52 were females. This figure had gone down to 962 in 1959, 951 being males and 11 females. It was also in 1954 that the total number of prisoners (including those pending from the previous year) was the highest, being 1,424. Out of this number 1,368 were males and 56 females. In 1959 the number had decreased to 1,157, 1,140 being males and 17 females.

Number of Prisoners

Year	Prisoners at the beginning of the Year			Received during Year			Grand Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1951	124	8	132	891	33	924	1,015	41	1,056
1952	190	9	199	1,006	49	1,055	1,196	58	1,254
1953	145	6	151	998	31	1,029	1,143	37	1,180
1954	163	4	167	1,205	52	1,257	1,368	56	1,424
1955	224	13	273	999	38	1,037	1223	51	1,274
1956	148	6	154	796	9	805	944	15	959
1957	166	5	171	968	28	996	1,134	33	1,167
1958	161	2	193	961	14	995	1,122	16	1138
1959	189	6	195	951	11	962	1,140	17	1,157

Source—Superintendent, District Jail, Sagar.

Contd.

year	Discharged from all Causes			Remaining at the end of the year		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
(1)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
1951	872	32	904	190	9	199
1952	1,051	52	1,103	145	6	151
1953	980	33	1,013	163	4	167
1954	1,144	43	1,187	224	13	237
1955	1,075	45	1,120	148	6	154
1956	778	10	788	166	5	171
1957	973	31	1,004	161	2	163
1958	933	10	943	189	6	195
1959	1,007	14	1,021	133	3	136

Source.—Superintendent, District Jail, Sagar.

The table above also shows the number of prisoners discharged during a year was again the highest in 1954 when 1,187 prisoners were discharged—males being 1,144 and females 43. The corresponding number in 1959 was 1,021 1,007 being male and 14 females

Distribution of Convicts According to Sentence.—The table below shows the length of sentence of various prisoners in the District Jail during the period 1951-1959.

Distribution of Convicts According to Sentence

Year	Length of Sentence				
	1 to 2 years	2 to 5 years	5 to 10 years	Life Sentence	Death
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1951	12	15	10	2	11
1952	28	13	4	1	11
1953	19	13	2	6	5
1954	12	18	16	21	2
1955	18	16	17	33	2
1956	10	13	4	6	3
1957	25	11	34	13	2
1958	20	29	10	6	6
1959	16	10	1	3	6

Source :—Superintendent, District Jail, Sagar.

Expenditure on Prisoners.—The total cost of maintenance of prisoners in the District Jail was Rs. 61,245 in 1954, which gave an average annual cost per head of Rs. 289.51. In 1959 though the total cost fell to Rs. 53,413 owing to fewer jail population, the average cost per head increased to Rs. 346.18.

Prisoners Under Trial.

The table below shows the number of undertrial prisoners for the period 1951—59.—The highest number of the under-trial prisoners pending from the previous year was in 1955. the number being 180—while in 1959 the corresponding number was only 123.

So far as the number of under-trials received during the period was concerned the highest number, 930, was in 1954. This figure had gone down to 704 in 1959. The total number of under-trial prisoners was the highest in 1954 being 1,035 while the same figure stood at 827 in 1959. The number of cases of under-trials disposed

of was the highest—855—in the year 1954, while in 1959 the corresponding figure stood at 746. The last column in the table shows the number of under-trials pending trial at the end of the year. Again, the number was the highest—180 in 1954 while in 1959 it stood at only 81.

Prisoners Under-Trial

Year	No. at the beginning of the year	No. during the year	Total	No. disposed of during the year by release of convicts and transfer	No. remaining at the end of the year
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1951	64	699	763	622	141
1952	141	754	865	821	74
1953	74	742	816	711	105
1954	105	930	1,035	855	180
1955	180	731	911	824	87
1956	87	625	962	557	135
1957	135	721	856	750	106
1958	106	713	819	969	123
1959	123	704	827	746	81

Source.—Superintendent, District Jail, Sagar.

CHAPTER XII

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

It is evident from the Eran inscriptions and the coins found on the site that there existed at Eran an important city which had a well-organised system of local Government, prior to the time of the Guptas. During the reign of Samudra Gupta, it should have been a flourishing city and was the headquarters of Airikina *vishaya* (Modern Sagar district)[1]. The Guptas had established a well-organised system of local government. The *vishaya* (district) was administered by a district council presided over by a *Vishaya-pati*, while the town was managed by an executive committee somewhat akin to the municipal committee, which looked after the collection of taxes, investment and recovery of public funds, etc.

There is reason to believe that an effective system of village Government continued to flourish during the centuries of Muslim power, and the subsequent period of Maratha rule in this region. A study of the records relating to the Saugor-Nerbudda Territories in the twenties and thirties of the ninteenth century reveals that the village communities were actively working in these parts.

Sir Richard Temple admits the existence of such bodies in the northern part of the Central Provinces. It is mentioned that the villages of the area had their headmen or patels, who acted as the spokesmen and leader of the village. Under the Maratha revenue system, according to which the village community was jointly responsible for the entire revenue, all details of assessment were left to the villagers themselves, the people were forced to act together under their headman, and to arrange their own affairs.

The origin of the modern municipal administration in the district could be traced to the second half of the ninteenth century when, under the Punjab Municipal Committee Act XV of 1867, the three municipalities of Sagar, Deori and Khurai were established on May 17th, 1867. The President of the municipality was then known as '*Bakshi*', who was assisted by a committee comprising two-

1. The Classical Age, p. 347.

third of the members elected by the inhabitants of the town themselves by show of hands and one-third consisted of nominated official members. The Tahsildar was the ex-officio Vice-President of the municipality and the local Medical Officer was an ex-officio member of the committee. Later when the first Municipal Act of the province, *viz.*, the Central Provinces Municipal Act II, 1873, was brought into force the three existing municipalities were re-constituted under this Act. It laid down that not less than two-fifth of the members shall be non-officials An important additional duty besides the sanitation and water supply, which the municipal committees had to perform, was the police duty which consisted mainly of watch and ward duties The main sources of revenue of the municipal committees under the Act were octroi, house-tax and license fee.

In 1882, Lord Ripon, the Governor-General of India, issued the well-known resolution on local Government indicating that the local bodies should have a large number of elected non-officials with a non-official as Chairman and that Government control on them should be indirect rather than direct This led to the revision of the existing Act and the introduction of the Central Provinces Municipal Act XVIII of 1889, under which the five municipalities of Sagar, Rehli, Deori, Khurai and Garhakota were established.

Under the Municipal Act, 1889, the number of elected and nominated members in the muncipalities of the district was fixed as under: —

Name of Municipality	Elected	Nominated	No. of wards	No. of seats for each ward
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Saugor	11	5	11	One person
Garhakota ..	7	3	7	Do.
Rehli	6	3	6	Do.
Deori	5	2	5	Do.
Khurai	5	3	4	One person each from ward 1, 2 and 4 and two members from ward No. 3

In 1901, the Municipal Committees of Rehli and Garhakota were abolished and the provisions of the Village Sanitation Act were enforced there. Thus there remained only three municipal com-

mittees in the district in the year 1901. Subsequently the Central Provinces Municipal Act of 1889 was replaced by the Municipal Act of 1903, which introduced the principle of retirement of members by rotation and provided for the establishment of Notified Areas also. It will be recalled that the Decentralization Commission appointed by the Government of India in 1907-08, considered the question of Local Self-Government and recommended that the urban areas should continue to have municipalities, with a substantial elected majority. The Local Bodies and the municipalities could elect their own Chairman and could determine the taxes to be raised.

The Montague-Chelmsford Report of 1918 accepted these recommendations Then followed the Government of India Resolution, 1918, and the Government of India Act, 1919, which transferred the subject of Local Self-Government to the Provincial Governments. The principles set forth in the Resolution and the Act were embodied in the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, (No. II of 1922), which was brought into force in the district with effect from the 1st July 1923. The municipal franchise covered all persons, whose monthly income was not less than Rs. 10 which was assessed to municipal taxes of not less than Rs. 2 per annum, or who owned house property in the municipality, having an annual rental value of not less than Rs 60. The Act gave rights to the voters to elect their President directly; but the Vice-President was appointed by the President Following a resolution adopted by the legislature in March 1925, that municipalities should be established in tahsil towns and in all towns having a population of 5,000 and above, the Notified Area of Bina-Etawah of Sagar district was raised to the status of a municipality on the 11th December, 1925, which thus became the fourth municipality in the district. With the elevation of Bina-Etawah to the status of a municipality, there remained only one Notified Area in the district, namely, that of Bamorah which had a population of 1,515 persons in 1926-27 and had an annual income of Rs. 9,575 It was not until the amendment of the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act in 1949 that the Notified Areas finally ceased to exist, having been replaced by Gram Panchayats.

The Develoment of the representative Local Self Government institutions received an impetus after the attainment of Independence in 1947. As we shall see later, entire structure of the Local Government institutions from the village upwards was reorganised so as to bring it in consonance which the principles of democratic institutions. In Sagar district, one more municipality came into exis-

tence in 1948 when Garhakota, which had been placed under the Village Sanitation Act in 1901, was raised to the status of a municipality, thus increasing the total number of municipalities in the district to five.

District Councils and Local Boards

Till 1870 a number of District Committees existed in the district to look after roads, schools and dispensaries and they were run by Local Funds administered by the local committees. The Local Rates Act of 1871, however, fused these committees in the district into a Single District Committee styled the Local Fund Committee, which was little more than a body of respectable gentlemen to look after roads, schools, dispensaries, etc. According to the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act, 1883, which came into force on the 12th January 1883, the Saugor District Council having a jurisdiction over the whole district, and Local Boards in Sagar, Khurai, Rehli and Banda, each having jurisdiction over one tahsil, were constituted for the first time in the district in February, 1885. The members of the Local Boards consisted of (i) the representatives from each circle, being the Mukaddam (Head of the village) or Mukaddams of the villages within the circle, elected by the Mukaddams of a circle, (ii) the representatives of mercantile classes or professions, resident within the group and elected by or appointed on behalf of those classes or professions, and (iii) members nominated by the Chief Commissioner, not exceeding one-third of the total number. The Tahsildar of the area was appointed Chairman of the Local Board. The Local Boards had no independent source of income but depended on the allotments made to them by the District Council, and were under the control, supervision and direction of the District Council.

The members of the District Council were elected not by direct representation, but indirectly by and from the Local Boards. Not more than one-third of the total number of members were nominated by the Deputy Commissioner. Though there was provision for the election of a non-official Chairman, in practice the official Chairman was still retained. The District Council and each Local Board had an elected Secretary in whom were vested the executive powers. The members held office for a period of three years from the date their names were published in the "C. P. Gazette".

The management of rural schools, dispensaries, hospitals, pounds and motor roads, with ferries on them outside municipal areas, was entrusted to the District Council.

The statement below shows the constitution of the Saugor District Council and Local Boards in Sagar district during 1899-1900.

Name	Area in Sq. Miles	Population
(1)	(2)	(3)
Saugor District Council	3,958	5,20,054
Saugor Local Board	1,051	1,62,782
Khurai Local Board	936	1,19,732
Rehli Local Board	1,270	1,50,347
Banda Local Board	701	87,193

Name	Number of Members				
	Nominated	Elected	Total	Official	Non-official
(1)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Saugor District Council	6	15	21	5	16
Saugor Local Board ..	3	12	15	1	14
Khurai Local Board ..	3	11	14	2	12
Rehli Local Board ..	3	14	17	2	15
Banda Local Board ..	3	7	10	2	8

The average income of the District Council for the decade ending 1901 was Rs. 53,000. The principal heads of receipt were road cess Rs. 8,400; education cess Rs. 6,500. receipt under the Cattle Trespass Act Rs. 13,000 and contribution from Provincial revenue Rs. 12,000. The average annual expenditure for the decade ending 1901 was Rs. 54,000, the principal heads being education Rs. 15,000; civil works Rs 17,000; medical charges Rs. 3,000 and cattle pound charges Rs. 5,000.

The Government of India in 1907-08 appointed a Royal Commission to consider the aspects of decentralisation of Local Self-Government. The Commission made broad recommendation in view of which the C. P. Government excluded District Funds from provincial accounts, and substantial powers of expenditure and general control were delegated to the Local Boards, from April 1st, 1908, which created greater interest among members in undertaking the work of local Government.

During the year 1911-12, the number of the Local Boards in Sagar District remained unchanged but there was a slight variation in their area, population and number of members, the details of which are given below :—

Name	Area in Sq. Miles	Population	Number of Members		
			Nominated	Elected	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Saugor District Council	3,943	4,82,895	7	17	24
Saugor Local Board ..	1,051	1,44,782	4	13	17
Khurai Local Board ..	936	1,04,202	3	11	14
Rehli Local Board ..	1,255	1,52,076	4	15	19
Banda Local Board ..	701	81,835	3	7	10

As mentioned earlier, the Government of India Act of 1919 transfered the subject of Local Self-Government to the Provincial Government. The Central Provinces and Berar Local Self-Government Act, which was consequently enacted, came into force from the 1st May 1922. It provided for the lowering of the proportion of nominated to elected members, abandoned the principle of communal representation and substantially relaxed the powers, previously vested in Government to supersede a local body. The Act enjoined upon the Provincial Government to form District Council and Local Board areas and for this purpose divided each district into groups and each group into circles. For each group of circles a Local Board and for a district one District Council were established. Accordingly, Sagar district was divied into 6 groups which were further divided into 71 circles.

Under the new Act, the principle of selection of members was also included; so that the District Council consisted of two-thirds of the total number of members elected by and from the Local Boards, one-sixth selected from the general electorate by the members elected by Local Boards, and one-sixth, other than Government officials, appointed by the Provincial Government by nomination. The Local Boards consisted of two kinds of members, elected and nominated, the latter not exceeding one-fourth of the entire membership of the Board.

The general elections under the new Act to the District Council and Local Boards of Sagar District were held for the first time in the year 1923-24.

After the next election, held in 1918, a class of selected members was included and the strength of Saugor District Council was, 4 nominated member, 16 elected members and four selected members. The District Council and Local Boards had also for the first time non-official Chairman during this period.

The Central Provinces and Berar Act (XXXII of 1939) introduced the principle of adult franchise for the elections to the Local Boards and abolished the system of nominations. Under the amended constitution, a Local Board consisted ordinarily of elected members, each circle constituting a group which elected one representative. In order to give representation to certain special classes and interests it was provided that in case the elected members did not include a Muslim, a Harijan and a woman, the elected members must select by single transferable vote a Muslim, a Harijan or a woman, as may be required, to be a member of the Board. If the members failed to do so, the Provincial Government made the necessary appointment.

The elections to the District Council were indirect; four-fifths of the prescribed number being elected by single transferable vote by the local Boards under its control from amongst their own members, and the remaining one-fifth selected by single transferable vote by the members elected by the Local Boards from amongst persons resident in the District Council area and possessing the qualifications of a voter. The inclusion of a Muslim, a Harijan or a woman was also provided for in the case of the District Council. The number of members of the Local Boards of Sagar district was fixed as follows:—

Name of the Local Boards	Number of members elected		Number of members selected	Total
(1)	(2)		(3)	(4)
Saugor	5	20	5	25
Khurai	5			
Rehli	6			
Banda	4			

The new contitution, however, never came into force and the Local Boards and the District Council constituted in 1936 continued to function in the same form till they were replaced by the Janapada Sabhas in 1948.

Janapada Sabha

An important step in the direction of decentralised local government was taken in 1948 with the passing of the Central Provinces and Berar Local Government Act 1948., popularly known as the "Janapada Act". This provided for the establishment of a Janapada Sabha within each 'Janapada' which was equivalent to a tahsil. This reform was introduced in Sagar district on the 14th August 1948, and with the formation of the Janapada Sabhas the district Council at Sagar and the Local Boards at the tahsil headquarters were abolished. A consequence of this measure was that the tahsil became the primary unit of administration and constituted a centre of Local Government in which the local officials and the representatives of the area were closely associated. A fuller description of the working of Janapada Sabhas in the district is given later.

Panchayats

During 1865-66 a beginning was made in village conservancy throughout the Central Provinces when the Mukaddam (headman) of the village was entrusted with the duty to keep his village in good sanitary condition. It was requested first in accordance with the provisions of C. P. Village Sanitation Act, 1889, according to which measures for the improvement of the sanitation and water supply of village were initiated in the district in 1892-93. Later in 1902, the village Sanitation Act was passed and was enforced in Etawa, Garhakota, Hirdenagar, Patna and Rehli. Of these, the adjoining villages of Garhakota and Hirdenagar formerly constituted the Garhakota Municipality while those of Patna and Rehli formed the Rehli Municipality, which were abolished in 1901. The income of these committees were derived from a tax on the residents graduated according to income, and the funds were generally expended on sanitation. In 1907-08, the Royal Commission, underlined the importance of villages, and remarked that "the foundation of any stable edifice which shall associate the people with the administration, must be the village, as being an area of much greater antiquity and one in which people are known to one another and have interests which converge on well recognised objects".

In 1920, the Village Sanitation Act of 1902 was superseded by the C. P. Village Sanitation and Public Management Act, 1920. Simultaneously, the C. P. Village Panchayat Act, 1920, was passed by the pre-Montford Council in the last year of its existence and was brought into force on May 1st, 1922. This was in a sense, the beginning of the Panchayat system in the former Central Provinces,

and twelve village Panshayats were, for the first time, established in the district.

The administrative activities of the village Panchayats were almost confined entirely to simple sanitary arrangements, construction and improvement of wells, fair weather repairs to roads and paths and the management of fairs and markets.

In 1938 the representative Ministry which was in office prepared a scheme for expanding the powers and functions of Rural Local Self-Government. Under the proposed scheme, every village or a group of villages was to have a Panchayat, every rural circle a Circle Board, every town with a population of 5,000 and above a municipality, and every district a District Council. But due to the resignation of the Congress Party from office in 1939, the proposed scheme could not be proceeded with.

With a view to consolidating and amending the law relating to Panchayats in the Central Provinces and Berar, the Central Provinces and Berar Village Panchayat Act was enacted in November 1946, and enforced on February 23rd, 1947.

MUNICIPALITIES

There are at present five municipalities, one each at Sagar, Khurai, Deori, Bina-Etawah and Garhakota in the Sagar district, which are governed by the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922, as amended from time to time. Their position is as shown below:—

Name of the Municipality	Area in Sq. Miles	Population
(1)	(2)	(3)
Saugor	13	66,442
Khurai	1	11 46
Deori	1	7,949
Bina-Etawah	1	12,720
Garhakota	1	9,268

Saugor Municipality.—Saugor Municipality has been classified as Class I Municipality. It was constituted in the year 1867 and reconstituted under the Act XVIII of 1889 which came into force on the 1st January 1890. During 1895-96, the committee consisted of eleven elected members, one from each ward, and five nominated members.

The population of the city in 1901 was 42,330 persons including the Cantonment (population 10,918) and its area was about 4,700 acres, out of which about 1,000 acres were nazul or Government property and the rest belonged to the nine villages which were partially or wholly included within the municipal limits.

The municipal committee was reconstituted during the year 1923-24 under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipal Act of 1922. During 1928, it consisted of 19 members of whom one was ex-officio, 3 nominated 13 elected and 2 selected and its Chairman was an elected non-official. The strength of the committee was later increased to 39 mmbers (29 elected, 7 selected, one President and two Vice-Presidents, selected, from the general public) This position continued until September 1960 when the committee was dissolved by the Governmnt and its powers and functions were vested in an Officer-in-Charge of the rank of a Deputy Collector. The population of the town including Sagar Cantonment has steadily increased from 44,416 in 1881 to 80,068 in 1951.

According to the Census of 1951, the density of population during the year was 5,111 persons per square mile. the area and population of the municipality being 13 square miles and 66,442 persons, respectively.

Deori Municipality.--Deori was created a municipality in 1867 and its population during 1871 was 7,414. It included the three villages of Deori, Berdhana and Jhunki. It was reconstituted under the Act, XVIII of 1889. The population of the municipality came down to 6,306 is 1891 and to 4,980 in 1901. The municipal committee in 1901-02 consisted of five elected and two nominated members and maintained a dispensary, a Vernacular Middle School for boys and a Primary School for girls The chief source of its income was a tax on houses and lands.

Later, the municipality was constituted according to the Central Provinces and Berar Municipal Act of 1922 and the total number of members of the committee became 12, of whom two were *ex-officio*, two nominated, six elected and two selected. An elected non-official member was the Chairman of the Committee. At present it consists of 14 members comprising eight elected, two selected, one Harijan. and one President and two Vice-Presidents selected from outside. The population of the newly constituted municipality was 5,369 in 1921, which rose to 7,949 in 1951.

Khurai Municipality.—Khurai was created a municipality in 1867 and later reconstituted in 1889. It covered a population of

5,400 in 1881, which slightly increased to about 6,000 in 1901. The municipality had a membership of five elected and three nominated members, and average total annual receipts for the decade ending 1901 were Rs. 15,900. The bulk of receipts were obtained from fees on the registration of cattle, markets, slaughter houses and octroi.

After the reconstitution of the municipality under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipal Act, 1922, the total number of members became 11, of which one was nominated, nine were elected and one was selected, and an elected non-official member was the Chairman of the committee. At present the number of members is 13 consisting of eight elected, two selected and one President selected from outside.

Garhakota Municipality.—Garhakota, a town in the Rehli tahsil, 29 miles east of Sagar on the Damoh road together with the adjoining village of Hiruenagar constituted the Garhakota Municipality in 1867 and it was reconstituted under the Act XVIII of 1889. It consisted of three nominated and seven elected members in 1895-96. It remained a municipality until 1901-02. When its municipal constitution was abolished a separate committee under the Village Sanitation Act was formed Its area was 27,00 acres and the population in 1901 was 8,500 persons as against 9,500 in 1891, and 11,400 in 1881. It was not until the 14th August 1948 that Garhakota regained the status of a municipality. According to the Census of 1951, its population was 9,268. The municipality had 16 members of whom 10 were elected, two selected, and one Harijan, one President and two Vice-Presidents were selected from outside

Bina-Etawah Municipality.—The town had a Sanitation Committee and the Village Sanitation Act was in force here in 1901 The receipts of the committee were derived from weighmen's fees and in the year 1901-02, they amounted to Rs. 2,300 Its population in 1901 rose to 6,418 as against 3,253 in 1891. It was declared a Notified Area on December 5th, 1904.

The Notified Area of Bina-Etawah was raised to the status of a municipality on 11th December, 1925 and the elective principle was introduced. The committee consisted of 13 members, of which three were *ex-officio*, two nominated and eight elected. The Chairman of the municipality was a non-official elected member.

The municipal area had a population of 9,226 in 1921, which rose to 12,720 according to 1951 Census. In 1961 the number of municipal members was 19, consisting of 12 elected, three selected, one Harijan, and one President and two Vice-Presidents selected from out side.

Functions and Duties of Municipal Committees.—The municipal committees are required, under the Act, to make reasonable provision within the limits of the municipality for lighting of public streets, places or building; cleaning public streets, places and sewers and all space not being private property, which are open to the enjoyment of the public; safe and sufficient water supply for all domestic purposes; protection from fire; regulating or abating offensive or dangerous trades or practices; control of public and private buildings and thorough-fare; establishing and managing of pounds; constuction, maintenance and alteration in public streets culverts markets, veterinary dispensaries, slaughter houses, latrines, urinals, drains, sewars', and providing public facilities for drinking water; control of infectious diseases; acquiring, maintaining and regulating places for the disposal of the dead, unclaimed dead bodies and dead bodies of paupers; establishment and maintenance of Primary Schools and poor houses; public vaccination: registration of births and deaths; registration of cattle; carrying out Census of agricultural cattle; and naming streets and numbering houses These are the obligatory duties of the committee and all the municipalities of the district except Garhakota are carrying out almost all the functions.

Besides, the Act lays down certain duties which the committee may, at its discretion, undertake and make provision for.

To transact the business of the municipality, the following ten sub-committees have been formed in the municipalities of the district: —

(1) Finance Sub-Committee
(2) Education Sub-Committee.
(3) P. W D. Sub-Committee
(4) Sanitation Sub-Committee
(5) Bazar Sub-Committee.
(6) Building sub Committee.
(7) Aushadhalaya Sub-Committee.
(8) Hackney-Carriage Sub-Committee
(9) Maraghata Sub-Committee
(10) Attendance Authority Sub-Committee

Financial Resources.—From the time of Lord Ripon, the financial resources of the municipalities are mainly confined to octroi taxes on houses and land; taxes on professions and trades, roads toll taxes on carts and vehicles and rates and fees for services rendered in the shape of conservancy, water supply. markets, etc.

The largest source of income in all the municipalities of the district except Garhakota (which has not been able to levy this tax as yet) continues to be the octroi duty. Besides, tax on houses and land which is known as *Haisiyat tax*, *Bazar Baithaki*, registration of sale of cattle, cattle pounds, licence fee and government educational grants are the other main sources of the income of municipalities of the district.

Saugor Municipality had a total annual income of Rs. 93,837 in 1900-01. Within a period of about fifty years the financial condition of the municipality improved, as will be evident from the following table :—

Year	Income	Expenditure
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	Rs.
1948-49	10,26,219	7,22,884
1949-50	10,36,419	12,35,806
1950-51	8,75,804	9,48,785
1951-52	10,98,649	10,44,022
1952-53	10,41,656	14,74,563
1953-54	11,29,533	15,12,896
1954-55	11,80,863	11,31,442
1955-56	17,49,625	16,53,209
1956-57	17,19,980	16,74,645
1957-58	19,81,379	16,97,088
1958-59	19,98,946	17,94,174
1959-60	21,48,499	25,71,773

The marked increase in the figures for 1957-58 is due to the government loan of about Rs. 19 lakhs for the construction of water works for supply of clean water to the town.

The annual income and expenditure of other municipalities from 1948-49 to 1959-60 are also given below :—

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF MUNICIPALITIES.

Year	Income in Rupees				Expenditure in Rupees			
	Khurai	Bina-Etawah	Deori	Garha-kota	Khurai	Bina-Etawah	Deori	Garha-kota
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1948-49	1,30,818	55,736	63,621	..	74,924	54,335	54,097	..
1949-50	1,23,333	75,263	71,274	19,144	1,20,345	75,340	60,775	14 467
1950-51	1,91,135	70,860	81,359	33,239	1,68,848	72,552	67,895	29,534
1951-52	1,28,656	98,254	89,760	34,685	1,61,288	92,241	78,214	31,022
1952-53	2,14,142	1,40,634	88,418	31,773	1,69,699	1.22,087	76,213	34,128
1953-54	1,97,460	1,42,586	83,615	36,068	1,92,266	1,36,609	74,722	36,444
1954-55	2,42,691	1,38,996	85,207	58,625	2,85 288	1,54,197	77,697	50,227
1955-56	2,99,939	1,65,649	86,174	48,291	3,00,380	1,74,797	75,496	50,094
1956-57	3,04,962	1,74,381	84,790	..	2,74,970	1,67,791	..	..
1957-58	3,97,599	2,56,329	82,657	54,303	3,97,328	1,97,136	90,111	56,689
1958-59	3,65,592	2,22,512	..	..	3,91,648	1,06,060	..	..
1959-60	3,59,188	3,19,875	..	..	3,66,253	2,52,163	..	..

Municipal Activities.—A major head of expenditure for all the municipalities is education. In this sphere the main concern is to expand the facilities for education at the Primary, Middle School and Secondary School stages. The Saugor Municipality runs one Higher Secondary School, one High School, one Middle School and twenty Primary Schools for boys and seven Primary Schools for girls. The annual expenditure on education for the year 1959-60 in Saugor Municipality was Rs. 3,58,310; in Deori it was Rs. 36,740; in Khurai Rs. 1,47,752; in Bina-Etawah Rs. 1,00,829 and in Garhakota Rs. 20,269.

Out of these five municipalities only the areas of four municipalities, *viz*, Saugor, Khurai, Bina-Etawah and Garhakota have been supplied with electricity. The power supply to Saugor Municipality was available on the 17th May, 1931, whereas Khurai and Bina Municipalities received it on 4th May, 1957, and 26th January, 1957 respectively. There are 530 street lights in Saugor Municipal area. The annual expenditure over the street lighting in these municipalities is given below: —

Year	Sagar	Bina	Khurai
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1956-57	45,100	562	13,603
1957-58	53,972	7,196	11,101
1958-59	60,299	8,817	18,081
1959-60	92,304	9,040	13,084

Other important items of expenditure are maintenance of public health and sanitation, public roads and markets. The municipalities spent Rs. 2,91,002 on conservancy and about Rs. 1,69,378 on construction and maintenance of roads of about 41.15 miles in length, during the year 1959-60.

A major project executed by the Municipal Committee of Saugor is the construction of water works and water supply scheme at Sagar with a cost of nearly Rs. 40 lakhs, in 1959-60.

SAGAR CANTONMENT BOARD

Besides these five municipalities there is a Cantonment Board at Sagar for the local administration of the Cantonment area. When Sagar came into the possession of the British in 1818 they

decided to station an Army unit there, partly became of its central position and partly due to the salubrious climate of the place. Later, a permanent cantonment was established at Sagar on 1st September, 1835. In the beginning, the authority for maintaining law and order was vested in the Officer Commanding the troops. The earliest rules, under which the Cantonment was administered, were the Bengal Regulation and, later, the Army Regulations.

In the year 1864 the Government of India enacted a law, consolidating the rules and regulations, concerning the Cantonments. Under that Act, a post of Cantonment Magistrate was constituted for administration purposes. This Act, was amended by Act II of 1880 and again by Act XIII of 1889 Under these changes, the Local Government was vested with powers to impose tax of the same description as were commonly imposed in municipalities. Till about 1923 the Cantonment Magistrate was the main stay of the Cantonment administration and, for executive functions, was subordinate to the Officer Commanding the troops, through an advisory council.

The year 1924 was an important landmark towards further *municipalisation* of the Cantonment administration, when Cantonment Board was constituted and the administration of the Cantonment was vested in it. Hereafter, administration of law and order was the responsibility of the State Government.

The Cantonment Board was an autonomous local body corporate and subject to certain control by the Central Government. The present area of the Cantonment is about 6 sq. miles (4030 acres) and its population, according to the Census of 1961, is 19,181. The present strength of the Board is 15 members, which includes eight nominated and seven elected members. Out of the nominated members, three are *ex-officio* members. The Officer Commanding the station is the President of the Board. The Vice-President is elected from amongst the elected members of the Board. The members hold office for a term of three years. The Chief Executive Officer, who is appointed by the Central Government, carried on his executive functions through the Cantonment Board.

The Board has to perform two types of functions; obligatory and discretionary. The obligatory functions include mainly the lighting, watering and cleaning of streets; registration of births and death; vaccination; primary education and sanitation. Under discretionary functions come the construction and maintenance of public parks, garden, tanks and wells; giving relief on the occurrance

of local epidemics, etc. In order to facilitate the work of the Board two committees, *i.e.* Finance Committee and Bazar Committee have been formed.

The Bazar Committee, now known as the Civil Committee, consists of all the elected members of the Board; the Health Officer and the Executive Engineer. The Vice-President of the Board is the Chairman of the Committee. The decision of the Committee are subject to confirmation by the Board, but by convention they are normally accepted by the Board.

The annual receipt and expenditure of the Board for the last twelve years are given below :—

Year	Income	Expenditure
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	Rs.
1948-49	1,41,216	1,27,792
1949-50	1,99'054	1,40,254
1950-51	1,81,970	1,71,748
1951-52	1,82,933	2,04,320
1952-53	2,06,175	1,76,605
1953-54	1,79'576	1,98'926
1954-55	1,98,118	2,35,560
1955-56	3,81,763	3,91,473
1956-57	3'53,813	3'18,089
1957-58	4,57'995	4,54,343
1958-59	4,89,240	5,05,344
1959-60	3,85,664	3,52,045

At present there are 3 Higher Secondary Schools, 2 Girls Primary Schools and 8 Boys Primary Schools in the Cantonment area. Out of these, one Higher Secondary School and 4 Boys Primary Schools are managed by the Cantonment Board.

The expenditure incurred by the Board on conservancy is almost half of the whole expenditure. During 1959, it spent about Rs. 1,86,680 under this head.

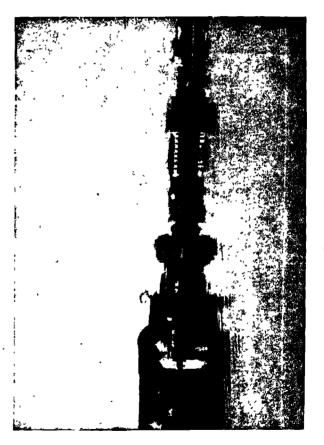
TOWN PLANNING AND PUBLIC HEALTH

Though there was little conscious town planning in Sagar till recent times, the town of Sagar itself was constructed around the large lake, which according to tradition, is believed to have been constructed by one Lakha Banjara in the 11th century. It was, however, Govind Rao Pandit, the Peshwa's representative in charge of Sagar kingdom, who first planned Sagar town as the capital of the territory. The British who took the town in 1818 made it a Commissioner's headquarters and a Cantonment for the army.

The lake which forms the centre of the town, extends over an area of about 400 acres. Formerly it was perhaps much larger and covered the ground on which the Town Hall, the Tahsil Office and Gopalganj quarters now stand. The present Collectorate, a large building situated on a hill overlooking the city, was constructed ed in 1820 as the residence of the Governor-General's Agent. In the same year another building, in which the Tahsil, Forest and the Public Works Offices are located at present, was constructed for the mint that was subsequently closed down. The lake was improved and deepend during the famine of 1900 at a cost of about Rs. 7,000.

Due to the topography of the region and the existence of the Sagar lake, very little improvement was effected in the old parts of the town. During the British regime, however, the administrative area in Gopalganj was developed in the typical manner of a district civil lines, and was connected with the old town by a narrow road with a steep gradient. At present, the total length of roads in the municipal area is 26.88 miles.

Lately the town has been increasing rapidly as will be evident from the Census figures of 1931 and 1951, during which period the population has increased by 50 per cent. To a certain extent this increase is due to the incoming of displaced persons, who mostly settled down in the old *basties*, thus increasing the congestion in Itwari, Rampura, Madarchalla, Parkota and Khusipura wards, where the density of population per acre has reached 146,111; 134, 135 and 119, respectively. The establishment of the University Campus, though at a distance from the old town, is also one of the factors responsible for the increase of population, while it has also increased the scope for employment and trade. For the development of Sagar town which has been growing rapidly, a Master Plan has been prepared which contains three schemes. The first of these is aimed at the extension of residential and commercial sectors in

Sagar Lake.

the town, while the second is intended to provide a better system of communication between the existing thickly populated areas and certain local points in the town. The third scheme relates to the development of an industrial zone where certain industries, based on the resources of the district, such as forest and agricultural produce, might be established.

Public Health.—The municipalities are responsible for making necessary provision for the maintenance of public health and establishment of dispensaries. The Act of 1883 included this in the duties of the District Council as well. The Saugor Municipal Council established a dispensary as early as in 1895 at Chameli Chowk. This was later taken over by the Provincial Government. It also ran an Ayurvedic and a Homeopathic dispensary.

The annual expenditure incurred by the Saugar Municipal Committee on the different dispensaries during the five years is given below:—

Year		Rs.
1955-56	..	5,899
1956-57	.	6,108
1957-58		6,456
1958-59		6,100
1959-60		11,411

A qualified Health Officer has been appointed by the Saugor Municipality, who looks after and supervises over municipal sanitation, slaughter-houses, markets and also controls the vaccination section.

Deori Municipality maintained a dispensary in 1901-02 and Bina Municipality started a hospital in 1952, both of which were taken over by the Provincial Government on the 1st August, 1958 alongwith other hospitals run by Garhakota, Deori and Khurai Municipalities. The Khurai Municipality is running an Ayurvedic Aushadhalaya and from 1904 a Veterinary dispensary within its limits.

Water Works.—The usual sources of water supply wells, tanks and nullas and the result was that very often the people had to face the problem created by the scarcity of drinking water. During 1865-66 a beginning was made in village conservancy, one special object of which was the provision of good drinking water. Inducements were offered to land holders who would sink wells in their villages. A concession of 60 acres of cultivable land free of revenue for every well sunk was offered and wherever necessary funds were advanced.

At first the water supply in the Saugor Municipality was from wells and the Sagar Lake. In 1911-12, the Sagar Water Works was constructed and controlled by the Public Works Department till 1923-24, when it was transferred to the municipal committee. During the forties of the present century the State Government decided to help the municipalities which were prepared to finance their water supply and drainage schemes. The Saugor Municipality came forward to take advantage of this scheme and in the month of November, 1954, the water supply scheme was taken in hand. The construction of a new water works at Sagar was completed in the year 1959-60 at a cost of about Rs. 40 lakhs, and it was inaugurated on the 26th January, 1960. It is now possible to provide for adequate supply of treated water to the whole city including the Cantonment and University areas.

The total expenditure over the maintenance of water supply works was about rupees four lakhs in the year 1959-60 and the present supply of water is about four to four and a half lakh gallons per day.

The other municipalities of the district do not have a water works, but depend for drinking water supply on wells. To overcome water scarcity in rural areas the State Government have decided to construct wells in villages with the help of Janapada Sabhas on a fifty-fifty basis. Besides, since 1948-49, with a view to controlling epidemics like cholera and water-borne diseases like dysentry, the State Government also planned to supply protected water to the people assembled in fairs.

Sanitation.—The Janapada Sabhas, Gram Panchayats and municipalities are the organisations which look after the sanitary works in rural and urban areas in Sagar district. The municipal committee at Sagar has set up sanitary arrangements in its jurisdiction. The sewage water is removed by sullage water carts to the compost trenching ground and is utilised in the preparation of compost manure. The drainage system in the towns is inadequate at present and has to be extended as soon as the municipality is in a position to take it up. In the Khurai Municipal area arrangements have been made for the disposal of sewage of the town. The sewage is collected near the public latrines and then dumped in the pits constructed on the outskirts of the town and turned into compost.

Janapada Sabhas

As stated earlier, with the passing of the Central Provinces and Berar Local Government Act, 1948, popularly known as 'Janapada

Act the District Council and the Local Boards were abolished and four Janapada Sabhas, one each at tahsil level were constituted in the district on August 14th, 1948. This Act is still in force in the district as amended from time to time. When the Janapada Sabhas were first established in the district they consisted of nominated members but the first general elections were held in December 1953 and elected Janapada Sabhas started functioning from April 1st, 1954. The Sub-Divisional Officers of Sagar, Khurai and Rehli Act as the Chief Executive Officers of these three Janapada Sabha, while for the Banda Janapada Sabha, which is the smallest Sabha in the district, the Tahsildar of Banda tahsil has been appointed as the C. E. O. The largest Janapada in the district is Rehli Janapada with an area of 1,254 sq. miles. The following table gives the size and jurisdiction of the different Janapada Sabha:—

Janapada	Area in Sq. Miles	Population	Number of Members		
			Urban	Rural	Toal
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Sagar ..	1,064	2,39,993	3	17	20
Rehli ..	1,254	1,51,644	2	18	20
Khurai ..	940	1,52,163	2	18	20
Banda ..	512	92,391	..	20	20

The Janapada authorities who are responsible for carrying out the provisions of this Act are—

(a) the Sabha,
(b) the Standing Committees,
(c) the Chairman of the Sabha,
(d) the Chairman of a Standing Committee, and
(e) the Chief Executive Officer.

A Janapada is divided into urban and rural circles. The urban circle consists of the existing Municipal and Notified Areas comprised in a Janapada and the rural circle consists of areas in a Janapada other than Municipal, Notified and Cantonment areas. The membership of the Janapada Sabha is of two kinds elected and selected. Elected members are again of two kinds, those representing rural circles and others representing urban circles. The representatives of rural circles are elected by secret ballot, whereas from urban areas they are elected by single transferable vote by the members of the

Municipal Committees and Notified Areas. In case the elected councillors do not include a Harijan, a woman and in areas specially notified by the State Government a member of an aboriginal tribe, the elected councillors select a Harijan. or a member of an aboriginal tribe as may be required. If the elected Councillors fail to do so within the prescribed time the State Government appoints such members. The life of the Sabha is for five years from the date of its first meeting and the term of office of every councillor co-terminates with it.

In pursuance of the Act of 1948, every Sabha in the district appointed. out of its own body, the following standing committees, namely:—

(1) Finance Standing Committee.

(2) Public Works Department Standing Committee.

(3) Public Health Standing Committee.

(4) Education Standing Committee.

(5) Agriculture Standing Committee.

(6) Development Standing Committee.

The last mentioned Standing Committee was, however, abolished in accordance with the recommendations of the Janapada Enquiry Committee. 1952, appointed under the Government Resolution dated April 5th, 1952, and the Act XVI of 1953, and instead, an Administrative Committee comprising eleven or nearly equal to one-third of the total number of councillors, whichever was greater, was constituted in each Sabha.

The Chief Executive Officer is the *ex-Officio* Secretary of every Standing Committee. The Administrative Committee deals with the co-ordination of the other Standing Committees and looks to the implementation of their decisions and the appointments of the Janapada staff. The Chief Executive Officer of the Janapada Sabha is a Government servant. generally of an Extra-Assistant Commissioner's grade. He looks after law and order, supervises over other functions and tries original criminal cases except cases under preventive sections of the Criminal Procedure Code. He hears appeals against decisions of Second and Third Class Magistrates also.

The functions and duties allotted to the Janapada Sabhas cover a wide range of subjects and include all measures likely to promote the health, convenience, comfort, and education of the people living in rural areas. The duties of the Sabha are of three kinds—obligatory, discretionary and entrusted.

The newly created Janapada Sabhas have been vested with larger authority and wider powers than what the old District Council possessed. In brief, any subject other than those relating to Revenue, Police, Law and Order, can be delegated to the Janapada Sabha.

Financial Resources.—The main sources of the income of all Janapada Sabhas in the district are cesses, share of land revenue, income from cattle pounds and markets.

All the sums received by the Sabha constitute the Janapada Fund which is vested in the Sabha and is placed to its credit.

The general financial position of the Janapada Sabhas during 1958-59 was as follows :—

Janapada	Income	Govt. Grant	Total	Expenditure
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Khurai	2,03,388	2,24.762	5,28 150	4,45,921
Rehli	2,03,864	2 50,142	4 55,906	4,74,920
Sagar	2,67 596	1,78669	4,46,265	4,96,880
Banda	1,25,656	1,13,645	2,39,301	2,56777

The total receipts as indicated above, include grants-in-aid from the State Government for education, etc

Education.—One of the main functions of the Janapada Sabhas is to provide for Primary education. In 1958-59 the expenditure on this account was an ever increasing demand for opening new Primary Schools in almost all the villages, having a population of 500 or more and it was the main item of their expenditure, as is evident from the following figures of the year 1958-59 :—

Name	No. of Primary Schools	Boys enrolled	Expenditure in rupees
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
			Rs.
Sagar Janapada	124	8,173	2,93,093
Rehli Janapada	129	9,997	2,89,764
Khurai Janapada	110	6.975	2,14,888
Banda Janapada	87	4,453	1,56,553

Sagar Janapada Sabha has been running one Higher Secondary School at Karrapur since 10th October 1961. In addition to this it runs eleven Middle Schools for Boys, four Girls Middle Schools and two Bal-Sadans. Khurai and Banda Janapada Sabhas are running five Middle Schools each in their respective areas Rehli Janapada Sabha has eight Middle Schools and one Bal-Sadan. It was also running an Agricultural High School which was taken over by the Government for direct management with effect from the 1st July 1959.

Public Health and Veterinary.—The average annual expenditure incurred by each Janapada Sabha on Public Health is as under :—

	Rs.
Sagar	18,482
Rehli	14,203
Khurai	21,664
Banda	10,331

The main activities under this head are the running of Ayurvedic dispensaries; purification of drinking water; measures for the prevention of epidemics; building of new wells with the help of grant-in-aid and vaccination and innoculation. The number of Ayurvedic dispensaries in Sagar, Rehli and Banda Janapada Sabhas is nine, eight and two respectively. There are twenty vaccinators in the regular services in all the Sabhas. One Veterinary dispensary has been established in each of the Janapada Sabhas of Sagar, Rehli and Banda.

Civil Works.—With the opening of the Development Blocks and the implementation of various development schemes, the Janapada Sabhas play an important part in the development of village communication; construction of building for schools, dispensaries and Panchayat Bhawans; and the construction and repairs of wells and tanks. Sagar Janapada Sabha completed civil works worth Rs. 4,81,500 from 1951-52 to 1959-60, while Rehli Janapada Sabha, during the year 1957-58 alone, spent Rs. 72,000 from the Janapada Fund and completed work costing approximately Rs. 1,45,000 with Government aid.

To augment the income of the Gram Panchayats and to encourage them to undertake development activities. the Janapada Sabhas of the district have transferred the management of markets with an income up to Rs. 100 to the respective Gram Panchayats.

Sagar Janapada Sabha, however, has transferred all the markets under its jurisdiction to the respective Gram Panchayats, irrespective of the amount of their income from the market.

Panchayats.

(i) **Gram Panchayats.**—The Village Panchayat Act, 1920 was amended by the M. P Panchayat Act of 1946 which came into force on the 28th February, 1947 in the whole of the former Madhya Pradesh.

According to the provisions of the Act in force, in the first instance, 231 Gram Panchayats were established in the district in the year 1947 in Villages or groups of villages having a population of 1,000 or more. In the second phase, 90 more Gram Panchayats were established in villages having a population of not less than 500. In the year 1961 there were 624 Gram Panchayats in the district.

A Gram Panchayat area is divided into wards, each of which sends usually one representative, elected on the basis of adult franchise and by secret ballot, from amongst the persons whose names are entered on the electoral rolls of the Gram Pachayat. The number of Panchayat members in each Panchayat ranges from five to fifteen, as may be fixed by the State Government on the basis of roughly one member for every 200 persons Besides, the Patel of the village is also an *ex-officio* Panch The term of office of a Gram Panchayat is five years

The Gram Panchayat elects its Sarpanch from among its own members or from persons residing in the village and possessing necessary qualifications of a Panch. The Sarpanch nominates a Deputy Sarpanch from amongst the members or from other qualified persons residing in the village.

The Village Assistant (Gram Sahayak) is the *Ex-officio* Secretary of a Gram Panchayat or a group of Gram Panchayats, as the case may be. His pay is borne by the Government; but a Gram Panchayat, having an annual income of more than Rs. 1,200 is required to contribute one-fourth of his pay. At present. 60 Gram Sahayaks, each looking after one group of 3 Panchayats, are working in the district. The Janapada Sabha has the general powers of administration, supervision and control over the Gram Panchayats, while the Director of Social Welfare and Gram Panchayats. with the help of the Divisional Welfare Officer in the Division, the

District Social Welfare Officer in the district headquarters and eight Social Welfare Inspectors appointed at Block level in the district exercises the control of the Local Government over the Panchayats.

Under the Village Panchayat Act, 1920, the functions of the Village Panchayats were limited to village sanitation and dealing with petty judicial cases. But with the passing of the M. P. Panchayat Act., 1946, the Gram Panchayats are entrusted with municipal and welfare functions. Sanitation and conservancy; supply of water for drinking, bathing and washing purposes; registration of births, deaths and marriages; construction and maintenance of roads in the village site; and crop experiments are the main compulsory duties of a Gram Panchayat.

All these duties are being performed by the Gram Panchayats of Sagar district, except the registration of births, deaths and marriages.

Certain optional duties can also be undertaken by the Gram Panchayats, in case the majority of its members so decide, or if the State Government directs The list covers almost all the municipal and development functions that are possible within the limited financial resources at their command.

The Gram Panchayats can also jointly undertake works of common utility which benefit the Gram Panchayat area In May 1958 the State Government introduced in this district, as an experimental measure, the scheme of granting Pateli Rights to 40 Gram Panchayats.

Financial Resources.—The main sources of income of the Gram Panchayats in the district are a cess on land revenue or rent of land at the rate of six pies in a rupee; a tax on all buildings and non-agricultural lands within the Gram Panchayat area payable by the occupier, or by the owner in absence of any occupier; a tax on persons practising any profession, trade or calling within the Gram Panchayat area: and a licence fee from persons practising the calling of a broker, commission agent weigher or measurer within the Gram Panchayat area. Besides, there are a few other optional taxes that a Gram Panchayat may levy, such as fees for cleaning latrines, fees levied on owners of and fees on registration of animals

The total income of the Gram Panchayats of the district, as mentioned in the annual returns for 1958-59, is Rs. 2,10,610 out of which compulsory taxes account for Rs. 30,853, Gram Panchayat

cess for Rs. 7,934, optional taxes for Rs. 13,285, contribution Rs. 57,145 fines Rs. 1,338, miscellaneous Rs. 29,631 and Rs. 70,424 being the balance of the previous year. The total expenditure during the year was Rs. 1,23,397, out of which Rs. 33,855 were spent on construction and repairs of tanks and wells, Rs. 15,976 for water supply, Rs. 21,666 for village sanitation, Rs. 20,463 for road repairs, Rs. 4,889 on buildings and nearly Rs. 8,665 for providing lighting.

(ii) **Nyaya Panchayats**.—In 1961 there were 56 Nyaya Panchayats in the district and the average number of villages covered by each Nyaya Panchayat was 38. The functions and working of Nyaya Panchayats have already been discussed in Chapter XI.

CHAPTER XIII

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

It is difficult to speak of education in the ancient period in Sagar district with certainty, for no positive proofs are available. That there was a certain system of education at the time when the Mughals held sway, and even before their coming when the Guptas, Chandelas, and others possessed most of the region, seems fairly certain when we consider the general level of culture mirrored in literature, art and social and religious customs of the times. The intellectual and social background of architectural relics, not to speak of the much earlier epigraphs, points to the prevalence of a certain system of education in the society which, undoubtedly, benefited from it. Several towns in Sagar district, such as Eran and Khimlasa, Dhamoni and Malthone are popularly known to have been ancient seats of education where men of learning devoted themselves to the instruction of the youth.

But it was not till the closing years of the Maratha rule in Sagar that we find positive evidence about the system of education that prevailed in the district By then the indigenous institution called *Guru-Pathshala* had come into vogue Individual instructors of merit started teaching select groups of pupils which sometimes attained the proportions of a small school The earliest *Guru-Pathashala* in Sagar was started by Shri Bihari Guru at a spot where the temple of Gendaji now stands. Later more institutions of this type came into existence in the town, including the one founded by Shri Ramgulam Guru, popularly called Chenkorilal. They were situated at Chakraghat, Chameli Chowk, Itwari Tori, Sadar Bazar and Bariya Ghat and were conducted by Nannhe Guru, Sunder Guru, Satru Guru, Bihari Guru, and Hussain Bux Master, respectively These schools were known in the local parlance as *Seedha Pathashalas* from the fact that they subsisted on the liberality of generous householders who supplied daily rations for their upkeep Less affluent parents paid an annual fee ranging from four annas to one rupee for their children. The course of study included history, geography, arithmetic, Hindi and theology connected with the religious affiliations of the young scholars. We need not, however, dwell at length in this place on the earlier forms of education in Sagar because they had little importance in the evolution of the present educational system But it is worth remarking that these

Pathshalas maintained two cherished traditions of the ancient method of education—they gave religion an essential place in the curriculum and they consisted of small compact groups of scholars.

When the British annexed this tract in 1818, they found a literature and a system of instruction existing among both Hindus and Muslims, in each case closely attached to their religion. Describing the state of the education in the earlier part of the nineteenth century the Committee representing the Central Provinces in the Education Commission (1884) says; 'In the larger towns and villages, especially along the path of pilgrims, for literature followed the track of vagrant piety, there were the usual indigenous schools. Many were opened in the rains to be closed in the cold weather, when the master resumed his wanderings There were Hindi schools, in which the multiplication table was taught; Persian schools and Arabic schools, in which the words of the Koran were learnt by heart, their meaning being unexplained Pandits collected private pupils to educate as village priests and astrologers, rather than formed schools. These indigenous schools, if schools they were, few in number and widely separated, were ephemeral, less efficient, and far less numerous than similar schools existing in the North-Western Provinces."[1]

Nothing serious, however, was done to supplant the prevailing mode of teaching till 1827 when James Paton opened nine Western schools in Sagar to which boys were attracted by sweetmeats and money prizes. One of these schools was in Katra, the second in Gopalgunj, and two of the rest were held in Plotangunj and Chameli Chowk. Here no fees were taken, and books, slates, and papers were given without payment. Similar schools were also opened at Rahatgarh and other places in the district. Since the Sagar school was the first modern school in this part of the country Paton can rightly be called the pioneer of western education in the Sagar and Nerbudda Territories. It is interesting to examine here the professed object that the British had in view in starting these schools at Sagar. The following extracts from a contemporary document may be of interest in this connection :

"We are in this part of India much in want of youth for Thannah Mohurrirs, Putwaries and other inferior native

1. Report by the Central Provinces Provincial Committee; with Evidence taken before the Committee, and Memorials addressed to the Education Commission (Appendix to the Education Commission Report), 1884, p. 1.

situations and it is only from a successful course of the education in the college of Saugor that we can expect a supply equal to the demand.

The education at present afforded in the college is only elementary and is not on a scale sufficiently enlarged to produce candidates for our superior native officers such as Tehsil dars, Shiristadars etc., we are therefore constrained to draw upon the Gangetic provinces for this description of men.

"It is not to be supposed that people fit for such appointments of good characters and of respectable families will leave their homes and country for the sake of employ in these unhealthy districts with inferior pay and respectability, and we are therefore obliged to accept of the services of men who would not otherwise obtain employ. If the committees could, therefore, suggest a scheme and furnish funds for the education of a new youth of respectable connections in these territories you would both increase the respectability of our native Amlah and add additional cause of attachment to our government of families who having suffered by our hypocricy have hitherto had no cause to wish well to us."[1]

But Paton soon left Sagar, and his schools started languishing for want of proper direction and funds. At this juncture a local philanthropist Krishna Rao Ringe,[2] came forward and set about managing the affairs of these institutions. Accordingly, the Government of India, on the recommendations of Mr. Maddock[3] earmarked in 1830 a monthly endowment of Rs. 100 for the maintenance of these schools. In January 1833, William Bentinck came to Sagar where he visited the school held at Krishna Rao's house. There were at that time 600 boys on the roll. So pleased was Bentinck with the performance of Krishna Rao, whom he described as a 'very intelligent and meritorious gentleman of sober habits and modest demeanour', that be gave him a gold medal and presented a Jagir. He also invited him to Calcutta to devote his spare time

1. Letter from E. C. Smith, Agent to the Governor General, to the Commission of Public Instruction, Fort William, dated the 2nd April, 1831. This is now preserved in Madhya Pradesh Records Office, Nagpur.

2. Born on 16th April, 1824, Krishna Rao Ringe was the grandson of Vinayak Rao, the Chief Minister of the Maratha State of Saugor in 1818. He got a reduced pension of Rs. 3,515-6-8 per annum and was later appointed as an Honorary Magistrate. For his distinguished services in the cause of education he was given a title and the village of Patharia in *muafi* for two generations.

3. Mr. Maddock was acting Agent to the Governor General in Sagar.

to the study of English. During his sojourn there, Krishna Rao not only studied the workings of modern schools but also enlarged the circle of his admirers through whose influence the monthly endowment was enhanced in 1835 to Rs. 300.

These efforts of Krishna Rao put the Sagar school on a sound footing. "Upto this time the schools, though meeting for some hours a day in one house, were in reality separate schools. Each master was paid so much a head for all the boys he brought, and he taught all such scholars, whatever might be their attainments."[1] Now teachers started getting fixed stipend; the scholars were classified, and the schools were placed under the control of the Committee of Public Instruction, Fort William. Following Bentinck's proclamation of 1835, the High School classes were opened in Sagar in 1836 and in the same year it was affiliated to the Calcutta University. The local management also came to be vested in a Committee of 'Government officials and Native gentlemen of rank', which continued to manage the school till 1859 when a Head Master, Mr. G. Wiggins was apointed to the independent charge of the institution. In 1839 the General Committee of Public Instruction provided a new building for the Sagar High School, but when the school was first assembled, it was found to be unhealthy. This led the people to contribute Rs. 2,500, the Government added Rs. 5,000; and in 1852 suitable accommodation was found in Katra where the present Motilal Nehru Higher Secondary School is located.

The introduction of English was another noteworthy feature of this period. Marathi, which had dominated the educational field until very recently, withdrew to the background, and was never studied until the disturbances of 1857 when the boys felt that the Maratha rule would return. In 1842 the study of Urdu was started; and in 1849 Persian was commenced. The popularity gained by different languages among the pupils in Sagar can be best studied from a Register for admissions and withdrawals preserved in the Government Multipurpose Higher Secondary School, Sagar. One of these schools, in 1856–61, had 147 students, of whom 61 per cent learnt English, 39 per cent Hindi; and 28 and 21 per cent of them also learnt Persian and Urdu, respectively. It is interesting to study the impact western education had on the caste-ridden society of Sagar. A few interesting details are available. It is recorded that, "though in 1849 a number of Brahmans left the school because of the admission of a low caste pupil, yet in 1862 a Chamar boy carried off the second Urdu prize, and in the meantime the

1. Report by the Central Provinces Provincial Committee, 1884, p. 2.

Chamar boy with whom, in 1849, the Brahmans had objected to sit, held a responsible situation in the Bengal Commissariat."[1]

Before entering the modern period of education, since 1835, we may pause here to study the efforts made by James Thomason to encourage education in Saugor and Nerbudda Territories. Son of Rev. C. Thomason. who had in 1814 worked for vernacular education, he used his influence as Lieut-Governor (1843—53) to encourage rural schools 'enlisting the persons whom the people may themselves select as teacher and support for that purpose'.

In 1849 the education in Saugar and Nerbudda Territories came to be controlled by the Local Government in N. W. Provinces and funds were assigned from the General Revenue. When this was over, the authorities declared their future educational policy. "In estimating the progress", says its first Report, "which has been made in the Educational Department of these Provinces as well as in forming schemes for its future management, it must never be forgotten how much less encouragement there exists here for the study of English than is the case in the Lower Provinces, and in the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay. There are here very few European residents, except the functionaries of Government. There is no wealthy body of European merchants transacting their business in the English language and according to the English method. There is no Supreme Court, where justice is administered in English; no English Bar or attorneys; no European sea-borne commerce with its shipping and English sailors, and constant influx of foreign articles and commodities. Even in the public service the posts are few in which a knowledge of the English language is necessary for the discharge of their functions. All European residents are sufficiently well acquainted with the vernacular to be able to express themselves and to stand in no need of interpreters. All public business except correspondence between English officers, is carried on in the vernacular language. There are, therefore, few means of diffusing a general taste for learning English in these Provinces or of securing a sufficient reward to those who have exerted themselves to acquire it."[2] There were other reasons for this attitude towards vernacular in this region. The majority of pupils, being children of the poorer classes and engaged in earning their livelihood from an early age, could hardly afford to spare time for learning a foreign language.

1. Report by the Central Provinces Provincial Committee, 1884, p. 2.
2. Report by the Provincial Committee Representing the North-Western Provinces and Oudh in the Education Commission, p. 8.

These were the objects the English had in view when they decided that, "except in the colleges, the vernacular will be the best medium if .... we wish to produce any perceptible impression upon the general mind of the people in this part of the country."[1] Statistics of the total number of Anglo-Vernacular schools opened in Sagar during this period show an increase:—1843-44, 206; 1848-49, 217; 1853-54, 284. Another significant step taken during this period was that the pupils were called upon to pay for their education. The monthly rate was calculated on the parent's income or the importance of individual subjects. Hence there was no uniform rate, and pupils paid different sums for the same or different subjects in the same class. For instance, the son of a raja paid 1 rupee and 8 annas, that of a lambardar paid 8 annas, and of a priest gave only 3 annas for the instruction of English in the same class. Similarly, fees taken from pupils were 1 rupee to 8 annas for English, 4 annas for Persian and Urdu, and 2 annas for Hindi. Owing to unfavourable public opinion and to poverty in this region, the total amount realised from Sagar was less than other places in the provinces. In 1848-49, 217 pupils at Jabalpur paid Rs. 125; while at Sagar, out of 217 only four contributed anything. In 1851-52 the average annual payment at Sagar was Rs. 1-8-0; in 1853-54 at the same school it was Rs. 2-0-10; while the average cost of educating each pupil in 1848-49 was Rs. 60, and in 1853-54 Rs. 71.

Between 1854 and 1857 one more reform was introduced in the field of education. It was the opening of *halkabandi* schools[2] in four districts of Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, viz., Sagar, Hoshangabad, Narsimhapur and Jabalpur. A halka is a circle or group of villages and the organisation of these schools is explained in the following passage:

> "The system of Hulkabundee or Circle schools had been devised previously to 1854, for the special purpose of meeting the wants of the agricultural population. Under this system, several villages conveniently situated for the purpose are grouped together, and in a central situation a school is established, which is not to be more than two miles distant from any of the villages forming the circle. For the support of these schools, the consent of the landowners was to be obtained to the appropriation of a small percentage on the amount of the

1 *Ibid*, p. 8.

2. The *halkabandi* or primary vernacular schools, which once existed in this region originated about 1851, in an experiment made by Mr. Alexander, Collector of Mathura district.

Government revenue, one per cent being the amount paid, of which half was to be contributed by the land owners and half by the Government. The voluntary consent of the land-owners was prescribed as an indispensable condition of the establishment of the system in any locality; and at the time of the out-break in the North-Western Provinces in 1857, the requisite assent had been given to the scheme in many of the districts, and the sanction of the Home Authorities had been accorded (in 1856) to the proposal of the local Government that in the resettlement of the land revenue, the new plan should be universally introduced and one per cent on the Government demand should be set apart in all the districts for the support of this hulkabundee system."[1]

The working of this scheme was entrusted to Lieut. Herbert, who was the Inspector incharge of the fourth circle comprising Saugor and Nerbudda Territories The necessary funds were obtained partly from a levy of cess of one-half per cent on revenue and partly from a grant of Rs. 12,000. Since the land revenue in this region was very small in proportion to the area, the cess, shortly after the formation of Central Provinces in 1861, was raised to two per cent of the rental For the proper inspection of these schools the authorities formulated a scheme, which was first introduced as experimental measure in eight districts[2] of present Uttar Pradesh and the same is thus explained: "There will be a Government village school at the headquarters of every Tahsildar. In every two or more Tahseeldarees, there will be a Pergunnah[3] visitor Over these a Zillah visitor in each district, and over all a Visitor-General for the whole of the Province."[4]

When these innovations were being made, the British were threatened by the formidable uprising of 1857. The factors responsible for this eruption have been described elsewhere. Here we may only point out the part played by certain educational measures in fanning disaffection in this region. The Inspector of Schools in the northern circle, while reporting on the state of

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1 Quoted in A Students' History of Education in India (1800 - 1947) by Syed Nurrullah and J P. Naik, p. 91.

2 Education letter (No 26), dated the 8th May, 1856, Selections from the Records of the Government of India, Home Department, No. LXXVI, Calcutta, 1870, pp. 54--57

3 The Pargana visitors were subsequently styled Deputy and sub-Deputy Inspectors.

4. Quoted in A Students' History of Education in India (1800- 1947) by Syed Nurrullah and J P. Naik, p 91.

education, spoke about the opposition of the people to the introduction of the Bible as a class book. It would be worth-while to analyse how this upheaval affected the course of Western education in Sagar.

The number of pupils in Sagar school decreased from 400 in January, 1856, to 156 in December, 1857. For one month work was entirely stopped as the building, situated on a commanding position, was occupied by the military. "When the city of Saugor was menaced by the large bands of predatory Bundelas, the European residents and the troops retired to the fort. The European Masters still daily attended the school and went to the fort at night. Many were the scared parents crying 'the Bundelas have come', sometimes made a rush into the school and carried off the children."[1] An eye witness account of conditions prevailing in Sagar school during these tumultuous days is preserved in District Records:

> "In the year of the mutiny I was a school boy in the Saugor school; our house is in the Deivala Naka Mohalla, it is now classed in the Narioli Naka Mohalla. Then too the wall round the city was broken down. I was in the 1st class. The school in the Katra Bazar had grown too small and the school, now demolished, was on the ridge between the General's house and the Cantonment near whereof F.D.O.'s Bungalow now stands. The Master was Mr. Wiggins and the 2nd Master was Mr. Bachman. The school was closed for a month or so about June, as the masters were on patrol. Then it was reopened for an hour or two daily. After the mutiny Mr. Wiggins became Inspector of Schools and Mr. Plates (afterwards Inspector of Schools) became Headmaster and Mr. Fraser and Mc'connac became assistant masters. Mr. Bachman went off to Ajmer."[2]

The Sagar school helped the British cause in another way. The paper currency had become scarce due to dislocation of communications. Hence it was decided to print notes of three denominations in the lithographic press of the Sagar school. Eighty thousand notes valued at Rs. 1,70,000, were issued in the latter part of 1857 and these notes, when the garrison was relieved by Sir Hugh Rose in 1858, were "in greater request than company's rupees". The profits, accruing from these transactions, were contributed to a fund for the benefit of the Sagar school[3]

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1 Report by the Central Provinces Provincial Committee, 1884, p 6.

2. Statement of Takhat Singh, retired Head Clerk, Case File No. 42 of 1933, preserved in Sagar Collectorate.

3 Report by the Central Provinces Provincial Committee, 1884. p 6.

The disturbances were soon over and after the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861, the growth of education in Sagar district merged in the stream of the educational development of the province as a whole. The different aspects of this advancement are described in various sections of this chapter. We shall narrate here only the salient features of the evolution of modern educational system in the district. The Sagar school had served the purposes of a model school and received scholars from other schools. In some respects, it served the need of a normal school where pupils were taught the art of teaching.[1] Two characteristics of this period deserve a passing reference. The one was the opening of branch schools connected with the high schools and middle schools in the district. They were supervised by teachers of the middle schools who, in some cases, even inspected indigenous schools and assisted in their examination. This made the inspecting staff free to devote their time to rural schools and make each school a centre of light for the town in which it was situated. Three branch schools at Sagar are mentioned in educational records, namely, the Main Branch School, the Cantonment Branch School and the Gopal Gunj Branch School. The figures of expenditure are available in respect of the Main Branch school, and they provide interesting information. The monthly pay of the Head Master of these Branch schools varied from Rs. 15 to Rs 22 and that of assistant masters from Rs. 5 to Rs. 15 Urdu was taught only in the main Branch school and the master was paid Rs. 17 per month. A monitorial system prevailed in all the three branch schools and a monitor, both in Hindi and Urdu, was paid Rs. 4 per month.

The second distinctive feature was that local committees[2] were formed in all government schools of whatever kind, whether middle class or primary. These committees consisted of not less than four members usually nominated by the Deputy Commissioner at the suggestion of the Tahsildars or the District Inspector from amongst the more influential inhabitants of the town or village. In contemporary documents the committees working in Sagar district are spoken of as progressive and liberal. "Some school committees, more especially in Damoh and Saugor, where the committees are particularly well utilised, divide the boys of their school amongst themselves. Each member takes down the names of scholars residing near his own residence, and makes himself res-

1. Report on the Administration of Central Provinces, 1862, p. 49.
2. For details about these Committees see H. Sharp, 'Rural Schools in the Central Provinces', 1904. pp. 29-30.

ponsible for their attendance at school. Committees reward the regular and rebuke habitual absentees. In Saugor and Damoh, school committees provide such excellent prizes, that the inspecting officer is half ashamed to give his own modest rewards."[1]

Between 1871 and 1881 the progress of education remained rather tardy. In 1871 the total number of schools was 95, including 21 private institutions. In 1881 the number of schools managed by the government in Sagar district fell from 74 to 69 and those under the private control from 21 to 19; but the number of pupils showed an upward trend.

The estimated number of pupils in Sagar district in 1871, was 4,316, in 1881 the number had risen to 5,255 which shows an increase of 21.75 per cent. About 10.8 per cent of the boys of the school—going age and about 2.2 per cent of the girls of school-going age were actually under instruction. Statistics pertaining to the primary education, further reveal that the ratio of pupils to the population was 1 to 18 in the urban and 1 to 101 in the rural areas.

During this period one notable event that occurred in the history of education in Sagar district. was the transfer of high school classes of Sagar school to Jabalpur in May 1873.[2] It is interesting to read how the staff and students travelled from Sagar in bullock carts, taking six days upon the journey. But the want of facilities for higher education at Sagar was severely felt and in 1885 the classes were again re established. Six years later it was affiliated to the Allahabad University for examinations. The growth of education seems to have suffered a set-back due to the famine which scourged Khurai and Sagar tahsils in 1877. But after 1901, there was an improvement in the position due partly to the political awakening among the people, the increasing amount of grants sanctioned by the Government and the introduction of the combined system, by which the teacher started getting a small fixed salary in addition to grants depending on the results of examina-

1. Report by the Central Provinces Provincial Committee, 1884, pp. 89-90.
2. This formed the nucleus of the Robertson College, Jabalpur, later renamed as Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya.

tions. The result was that in 1902-03, the Sagar school had 64 pupils in the higher and 255 in the middle classes with an average attendance of 88 per cent. Apart from this school and its three branches, the district had 110 boys' schools and 28 girls' schools with 6,032 boys and 1,290 girls; 116 girls were studying in boys' schools. Of these there was one English middle school at Khurai, three first grade vernacular middle schools at Khurai, three first grade vernacular middle schools at Garhakota, Rehli, and Deori with 596 scholars, and eight second grade middle schools at Shahgarh, Pithoria, Malthone, Khimlasa, Etawah, Jaisinghnagar, Gourjhamar, and Rahatgarh which taught 766 pupils both in the primary and middle stages. Out of the total number of 138 schools in the district, 109 were maintained by the district councils and 11 by the municipalities. The remaining 18 were private schools, of which all except one got grants from the Government. The expenditure on education was Rs. 38,000 of which Rs. 24,000 were spent on primary and Rs. 14,000 on the secondary education. The proportions of pupils to the total number of children of school-going age was 13½ per cent in the case of boys and about 2 per cent in that of girls. The report for the year 1907-08 speaks highly of the standard of teachers in Sagar school who are described as 'a very good lot of men'.

About this time steps were taken to educate the children of backward classes in the district and a school for the Chamar boys was opened at Khurai. A school for the Gonds was also started but subsequently had to be closed down. There also appeared two Christian Missionary institutions in Sagar, namely, the St. Joseph's Convent and the Swedish Mission School for orphan girls. With the enactment of C. P. & Berar Primary Education Act in 1920, the primary education in the district passed into the hands of local bodies.

The Vidya Mandir Scheme which was introduced in 1937-38 made a significant attempt to link the system of rural education with the agricultural occupation of the villages. In so far as this scheme impinged on the agricultural development of the district

an account is given in another chapter. Here it is enough to say that the scheme did help in the expansion of the educational activities in the district in the rural areas.

To complete this historical survey, education in Sagar district received an impetus with the establishment of the University of Saugar in 1946. The University is of the teaching and affiliating type and has steadily grown during the last about 16 years, as will be seen in a later part of this chapter. The table below shows the growth in the number of educational institutions and their enrolment during certain significant years :—

	Institution				Enrolment			
	1827	1927	1956	1961	1827	1927	1956	1961
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Primary ..	12	147	431	465	N A..	7,000	33,855	51,303
Secondary ..	..	16	46	67	..	2,611	16,330	23,470
Collegiate ..	..	..	1	1	..	..	1,092	1,373
Miscellaneous	..	..	5	7	..	..	313	490

NOTE.—The first two columns show the growth over a century while the next two columns indicate the position at the end of the First and Second Five-Year Plans.

Organisation and Set-up

The territories comprising the former Central Provinces began to come under the British rule from 1818 but they were not welded into a separate administration till 1861. Saugor and Nerbudda Territories were first attached to the North-Western Provinces. All the educational institutions during this period were controlled by the General Committee of Public Instruction, Fort William, with regard to their finance. On the receipt of the Despatch of 1854, the North-Western Provinces was formed into two circles for educational purposes. The second division including Saugor and Nerbudda districts contained 50,000 sq. miles of territory and a population estimated at 16,000,000. The circles were unwieldy and eventually four circles were formed in 1856, of which the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories were the fourth circle, with headquarters[1] at Sagar and one Lieut. Herbert as the first Circle Inspector.

1. Among the finds discovered in the office of the District Inspector of Schools, Sagar, a copper seal has this inscription both in Urdu and Hindi Muhar Sarishta Talim Jilah Sagar, 1856, A.D.

Such was the initial organisation till in 1861 the Education Department was constituted with Captain P. Dods as the first Director of Public Instruction[1] The whole province was divided into three circles; the northern comprising the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, the southern extending over the districts of the Nagpur Province; and the eastern including Chhattisgarh with headquarters at Raipur. An Inspector was appointed to each circle. To assist the Circle Inspector there was a District Inspector in each district. In 1881 the Inspectorate of Schools for Sagar comprised an area of 4,005 sq. miles containing 87 schools with 4,789 pupils. It is interesting to note how, in these early days, the control of primary education was broad-based and assigned jointly to the civil authorities, the officers of the Education Department and the local bodies. "A District Officer, whether a Deputy Commissioner or Commissioner is responsible for the state of education generally in his district, and the educational department is the instrument in his hands for carrying out this responsibility."[2] Later in 1885, the local bodies became the chief controlling agency, and the district councils were entrusted with the responsibility of providing educational facilities in the district.

This system continued to work satisfactorily, but in 1938, the posts of Circle Inspectors were abolished and some of his powers were transferred to the District Inspector. Within three years of this arrangement, it was found that the education of boys had suffered from this change Consequently, the previous system was restored and divisional units were established once again. Three years later the superintendence of girls education in Sagar was entrusted to the District Inspectress of Schools, Jabalpur. The position now is that girls education is being looked after by the Inspector of Schools with the help of one Assistant Inspectress. At present the District Inspector of Schools, Sagar is in charge of the primary education both for boys and girls. He is assisted by 15 Assistant Inspectors and an Assistant Inspectress.

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1 It is curious to note how, in those early days almost the entire superior inspecting staff was drawn from officers of the army. The designation of the Director of Public Instruction was subsequently changed to that of the Inspector General of Education, his functions remaining the same as before. The change was merely intended to show that Inspector General of Education in C. P. merely inspects but does not direct or control the Vernacular Schools.

2. Chief Commissioner's Book Circular, No. XIV, dated the 27th November, 1868.

Literacy and Educational Standards.

The number of literates in Sagar district according to the Census of 1901 was 19,252 of whom 18,333 were males and 919 females. This gives a percentage of 7.68 male literates and 0.40 female literates; the percentage of literates to the total population of the district being 4.09.

According to 1911 Census there was a slight increase in respect of literacy among both males and females, the former being 8.79 and the latter 0.64, making the total percentage of literacy 4.80 per cent of the population. During the years 1921 and 1931, there was an improvement in literacy by only one per cent. In 1941. the increase of literacy was considerable The male literates constituted 14 70 per cent and the literate females 4.43 per cent, making a total percentage literacy of 9.62. The corresponding figures for 1951 were 21 70 per cent male literates and 5 46 per cent of literate females, making a total literacy of about 13.86 per cent of the population.

According to the figures of the 1961 Census, out of a population of 796,547 (414,834 males and 381,713 females) in Sagar district. the number of literates was 163,412, of whom 126,623 were literate males and 36,789 literate females which gives a percentage of 30.52 males and 9.64 females and the number of total literates being 20 51 per cent of the total population. The table on the next page states the position :—

NUMBER OF LITERATES

Year		Population			Literates			Percentage	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1901 ..	4,71,046	2,38,728	2.32,318	19,252	18,333	919	4.09	7.68	0.40
1911 ..	5 41 410	2,76,233	2.65,177	26,001	24,291	1,710	4.80	7.79	0.64
1921 ..	5,28.380	2,72,298	2.56,082	30,342	27,560	2,782	5.74	10.12	1.09
1931 ..	5,44,589	2,80,385	2.64,204	34,277	30,918	3,359	6.29	11.03	1.27
1941 ..	5,96,744	3,01,580	2,95,164	57,396	44,329	13,067	9.62	14.70	4.36
1951 ..	6,36,191	3,29,003	3,07,188	88,189	71,392	16,797	13.86	21.70	5.46
1961 ..	7,96.547	4.14,834	3,81,713	1,63,412	1,26,623	36,789	20 51	30.52	9.64

Source.—Respective Census Reports.

NOTE.—The population figures have not been adjusted according to the present territory of Sagar district.

There is one more side of the picture. If we examine the literacy and educational standards of rural and urban people according to the 1951 Census report, it reveals interesting features as may be seen from the Table below:

Education Standard	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Literate (Below Middle School Standard)	67,648	58,845	8.803	39,869	26,067	13,802	1,07,517	84,912	22,605
Middle School	1.517	1,255	262	4,493	3,327	1,166	6,010	4,582	1,428
Matriculate or S. L. C, Higher Secondary ..	1.298	1,131	107	2,117	1,666	451	3,355	2,797	558
Intermediate in Arts or Science	312	286	26	350	249	101	662	535	127
Graduates in Arts or Science	192	179	13	285	254	31	477	433	44
Post-Graduates in Arts or Science	96	89	7	78	69	9	174	158	16
Teaching..	164	132	32	206	110	96	370	242	128
Engineering	10	10	..	11	9	2	21	19	2
Agriculture	3	3	..	..	..	..	3	3	..
Veterinary	2	2	..	..	..	..	2	2	..
Commerce	14	14	..	3	3	..	17	7	..
Legal	15	15	..	28	28	..	43	43	..

(Continued on next page

(From previous page)

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Medical	17	17	..	129	114	15	146	131	15
Others	45	41	4	24	8	16	69	49	20
	71,273	62,019	9,254	47,593	31,904	15,689	1,18,866	93,923	24,943

Source.—Sagar District Census Handbook, 1951, p.133.

Note.—Figures are combined for Sagar and Damoh districts.

Spread of Education Among Women

It would normally be expected that the education of girls had a later and tardier growth in the districts than that of boys. In regard to Sagar district we find that it was in the latter half of the nineteenth century that the education of girls was undertaken in a modern, and organised way. But it made such a good start that soon Sagar district had the distinction of being one of the foremost districts in respect of women's education. In 1871 Sagar was the only district in which the girls education really flourished. The schools at Khurai, Deori and Garhakota enjoyed the reputation of being the best in the region. This efficiency was mainly due to the interest shown by the people and local staff. The following extract from a tour diary described the state of affairs in the Khurai Girls School in 1881: "There were 96 girls present out of 103 enrolled. The average attendance has been 81 per cent of the average number enrolled during the past twelve months. The girls were arranged in five classes: three classes containing 73 girls formed the lower primary department, 22 girls were in the upper primary department. and eight girls had advanced beyond the upper primary stage. The highest class girls read the *Elements of Physical Science*, and the *Ramayan*. They had a good knowledge of Hindi grammer and a fair knowledge of the geography of Asia and India: all wrote from dictation without a single mistake and in rule of three all the girls were correct. The lower classes passed a similarly good examination. The committees are very liberal and earnest in the support of this school. The girls recited pieces from the *Ramayan* in the evening."[1]

In 1881 there were 19 girls schools in Sagar with 143 pupils in the upper primary and 7,494 in the lower primary classes. The number of pupils who passed during the same year was 98. Statistics further reveal that the proportion of girls under instruction of girls of school-going age was 2.2 per cent in Sagar. This figure represented the highest percentage of female literacy in the Central Provinces at the time. Other districts that followed were Narsimhapur (1.2), Jabalpur (1.3) and Hoshangabad (1). With the dawn of the 20th century two Missionary schools came into being. The first was the Swedish Mission School for orphans. This is now working as a Higher Secondary School both for boys and girls. The second was the St. Joseph's Convent School which is situated in the cantonment area. Founded in 1905, it has a large and beautiful building surrounded by an extensive compound. Pupils are prepared for the Senior Cambridge and Higher Secondary examina-

1. Report by the Central Provinces Provincial Committee, 1884, p. 74.

tions. It is mainly a girls' institution as boys beyond the age of 10 years are not admitted. Another noteworthy institution is the Mahila Ashram which imparted education to girls through Marathi medium. Founded in 1924 by some public-spirited people of Sagar, it aimed at giving education on national lines, with due emphasis on subjects specially suited to women. The Mahila Vidyalaya soon became popular and the steady increase in the number of girls led to the upgrading of this institution to a high school in 1932 when it was affiliated to the S. N. D. T. Women's University, Poona. In 1933 a Hindi section was started in Mahila Vidyalaya, but subsequently it was separated and expanded into the Maharani Laxmi Bai Higher Secondary School. During the period 1947—61 the education of girls has expanded throughout the district, as may be seen from the following table :—

Year	Institution	Scholars	Teachers
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1947	44	3,965	N. A.
1951	46	4,431	240
1956	53	15,464	242
1961	62	26,309	394

GENERAL EDUCATION

Pre-Primary Education

A systematic programme of education at the pre-primary stage is a comparatively modern innovation. Formerly, the department did not provide any institution for education of children below the age of six. The first institution of this type, Jawahar Bal Sadan, was established in Sagar in 1950. The Rehli Janapada started a Bal Vihar in 1953. Thereafter, a few nursery schools were opened in quick succession. In 1956 there were four nursery schools with 346 pupils and eight teachers, in 1961 the number of pupils rose to 621 and the number of institutions to 11. The management of these schools is entirely by private bodies.

Primary Education

The Primary education in this district has a long and chequered history. The table below shows its growth since 1827, the year when Capt. Paton started the first Western school, up to 1931 :—

	1827	1871	1891	1911	1931*
1. Number of Schools ..	12	95	79	118	157
2. Number of Scholars	N. A.	4,316	3,717	5,571	7,753

*Subsequent figures for Sagar district alone are not available as Damoh became a part of it in 1931.

The succeeding period, particularly after Independence, witnessed a considerable expansion in the field of primary education. This progress is reflected in the increase in the number of primary schools, enrolment at these schools, the number of teachers and expenditure incurred therein. The number of schools increased from 205 in 1947 to 402 in 1961. But the rise in the number of boys' schools was more striking than that of girls' schools. The increase in enrolment has also been substantial It rose from 18,066 (14,782 boys; 3,284 girls) in 1947 to 27,210 (23,731 boys; 3,469 girls) in 1951; and 51,303 (31,801 boys; 19,502 girls) in 1961. Here again the increase in case of boys is more pronounced than in case of girls, except for the year 1961.

The number of teachers also showed a steady upward trend. It increased from 551 in 1947 to 1,469 in 1961. There has been a corresponding increase in the number of trained teachers during this period which rose from 236 in 1947 to 984 in 1961. The teacher-pupil ratio stood at 1.33 in 1947 and 1.35 in 1961. The average number of pupils per teacher was the lowest in 1956 (24) and highest in 1961 (35).

Coming to the expenditure incurred on primary schools, it may be said that it has continuously increased since 1947. The total expenditure incurred in 1947 was Rs. 5,71,838. It increased to Rs. 8,28,333, or by 44.8 per cent in 1956, and to Rs. 10,79,361 or by 30.3 per cent in 1961. The sources of funds for this expenditure were several. In 1961, 68.7 per cent of expenditure came from Government, 19.1 per cent from District Boards, 11 per cent from Municipal Boards and 1.2 per cent from other sources.

The progress of primary education during the years, 1947—1961, thus reveals that compared with the position in 1947 the percentage increase in 1961 was 96 in the case of institutions, 184 in the case of enrolment, 167 in the number of teachers, and 89 in respect of expenditure.

Compulsory Primary Education Scheme

With the passing of C. P. and Berar Primary Education Act, 1920 the local bodies became empowered to introduce compulsion within their limits and raise local cess to meet the expenses. In the beginning the progress in this direction was slow and it was only in 1928 that compulsion was partially introduced in Sagar town. At the commencement of First Plan in 1951, only 16 schools were under this scheme. Three years later, in 1954, it was introduced in

five more villages while the Rehli Janapada enforced it in Gourjhamar, Maharajpur, and Rehli town in the year. The position in 1956-57, and in 1960-61 was as follows :—

	1956—57	1960—61
1. Schools	42	46
2. Pupils	5,396	9,046
3. Staff	152	246
4. Expenditure(Rs. in lakhs) ..	0.73	3.00

During the Third Five-Year Plan all children in the age-group 6—11 are expected to come under compulsion

Basic Education

In the preceding paras, we have reviewed the progress of primary education mostly in quantitative terms. Now in respect of the content and quality an imaginative step was taken to make primary education self-supporting. Accordingly, in 1937, the Government of former Madhya Pradesh launched the Vidya Mandir Scheme in order 'to provide instruction in subjects which will give the pupil a living interest in his environment.' Originally eight Vidya Mandirs were established on the donated farm lands at Vijayapura, Singpur, Chandok, Singravan. Ghorat, Patharia Jagan, Majlighan, and Rampura. Of these the last two ceased to function in 1948 and 1950, respectively. The remaining Vidya Mandirs are now being managed by the Agriculture Department.

Another step in this direction was taken in 1947, when the Government decided to introduce basic education in one selected Indian middle school in each tahsil. Four Indian middle schools at Dhana, Hindoria, Raneh, and Deori, were taken over by the Government from the local bodies and Basic Syllabus was introduced in classes I and II in primary schools at Banda and Bamora. The position of basic education in 1956—61 may be summarised as under :

Year	Institutions		Scholars	
	Junior	Senior	Junior	Senior
1956 ..	33	4	2,591	1,473
1961 ..	28*	4	2,679	1,818

*Decrease is due to upgrading of schools.

Secondary Education

We may now trace the growth of secondary education in Sagar district. During the period, 1891—1931, its progress has been halting, unimpressive and haphazard. In 1891 there were 16 secondary schools with 1,365 pupils; the number stood in 1911 at 15 schools and 2,166 pupils, and in 1931 at 18 and 2,947, respectively. After 1947 its progress has been encouraging. In 1961 Sagar district had 47 Middle schools, 2 High Schools, 17 Higher Secondary Schools, and one Multipurpose Higher Secondary School with 12,792,402; 9,780 and 496 scholars, respectively.

The percentage of children under instruction to the population of children in the age group 11–14 has been 7 per cent in 1951, 8 per cent in 1956 and 10 per cent in 1961.

In 1961 there were 862 teachers in secondary schools out of which 596 were trained and 266 untrained In middle schools the number stood at 432 in the same year, trained teachers numbered 357 and untrained teachers 75

Analysing the figures of expenditure we find that it has increased continuously since 1947. The total expenditure incurred in 1947 on secondary education was Rs 1 87 lakhs. It increased to Rs.4.67 lakhs in 1951 and to Rs 10 88 lakhs in 1961

Collegiate Education

The first step to introduce collegiate education in the district was taken in 1940, when an Arts College was started by prominent citizens of Sagar. This later merged into a new institution named Hindu College, after a precarious existence of five years. The succeeding year, 1946, was a landmark in the history of education in the district. It saw the birth of the University of Saugar. The University owed its existence mainly to the inspiration and munificence of Shri Hari Singh Gaur who, besides being a foremost jurist, was also an indefatigable social reformer and an enlightened educationist

Born in Sagar on 26th November 1870, Shri Hari Singh Gaur had his early education in the local Government High School. Later on, he proceeded to Cambridge, where he took his Honours in Moral Science Tripos (1892) After his return in the summer of 1902, Shri Hari Singh Gaur started practising at the Bar. Though he attracted a large clientele, yet he was much more than a lawyer and his monumental works on law bear testimonoy to his juristic learning. He was a sagacious legislator and his Civil Marriage Bill (now Act of XXX of 1923) gave him country-wide reputation. He

[illegible] made valuable contribu- [illegible]. He was appointed the [illegible] of Delhi University where he served with [illegible] ability. For two successive terms he worked as a Vice-[illegible] of the University of Nagpur, and in the evening of his life [illegible] shadows lengthened, he returned to his native town of Sagar, and through his donation of about a crore of rupees, laid the foundation of the University of Saugar, and since then, the institution has progressed steadily.

The University, situated on the Patharia hill commands a picturesque and panoramic view. It is a teaching, residential-*cum*-affiliating intitution with about 1,800 students on its roll. Apart from the post-graduate studies in the arts, science and commerce subjects, it also has provision for research work The number of research scholars in 1961 was 432, as against 280 in 1959. The noteworthy academic developments in recent years include opening of the faculty of Engineering and Technology. Post-graduate Departments of Philology, Linguistics, and Indo-Iranian studies, Microbiology and Biochemistry, Criminology and Forensic Science and the Diplomas in Pharmacy and Yogic Studies.

There are six hostels and a well-equipped library attached to it.

National Cadet Corps and Auxiliary Cadet Corps

The N. C. C. in Sagar has at present two units, (i) Saugor Independent Coy. (1948), and (ii) 9 M. P. Senior Wing Girls' Division (August 1954). The scheme covers the students studying in the University of Saugar and other educational institutions of the district. The strength of the corps in 1961-62, was 522 (449 boys, 73 girls). The A C. C. Scheme has imparted training to 28 teachers and 1,856 cadets (1,616 boys, 240 girls).

Professional and Technical Institutions

The earliest industrial institution in Sagar was opened by the Swedish Mission. In 1936 its management was transferred to the municipality and, at present, carpentry is taught here. The enrolment number is 25. In addition there is a Junior Technical School, which imparts training in different trades for a period of three years.

Teachers' Training College.—The first training institution in the district was established in 1919,[1] but it was abolished soon after.

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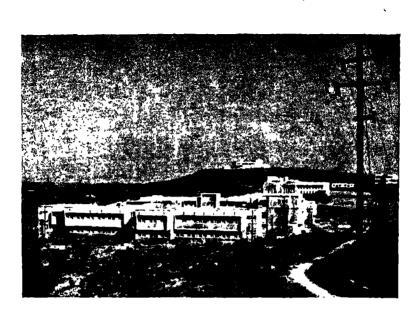
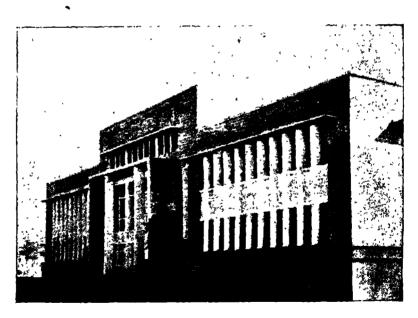
1. According to *Sagar Parichaya* (pp. 42-43) this institution was opened in 1901 and closed in 1919.

General view of Saugar University.

Library Building, Saugar University.

The enrolment figures increased in the meantime. Subsequently a Normal School was started in 1946, and six years later two Basic Training Colleges, one each for boys and girls, were opened at Sagar and Rehli. In 1961, a Post-Graduate Basic Training College was established with an intake capacity of over 75 pupils.

Oriental Schools and Colleges

In former days Sagar had been a renowned seat of Sanskrit learning. The oriental education at that time was in the hands of men of learning who were dedicated to the instruction of youths. The schools were usually attached to shrines and residences of individual teachers, who were supported by private liberality in cash or kind. The first Sanskrit Pathshala in Sagar town is said to have been started by Vinayak Rao Debekar some time in 1898. At about this time another Pathshala was opened in the temple of Dularibai where Yajurveda was taught. The students were nationalist-minded and after the visit of Yogi Arvind in 1907, it became a centre of popular movement against the alien rule In 1957 it was re-christened as the 'Bramhacharya-ashram' which is now situated at the Dharamsi Naka. The management is entirely private and finances are obtained from grants and public donations In 1922, a Rishikul Lok Priya Darshan Mahavidyalaya was started in Sagar, but soon it was closed down. Later it again started functioning since 1955. Another important institution is Shri Ganesh Jain Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya which was founded in 1905 to provide teaching of Jain scriptures There is a hostel attached to it.

Besides these there is a L. P. D. Sanskrit College at Dhana, which has also an Arts section attached to it since 1958. Another Sanskrit school is working at Bina. There were in 1961, three Sanskrit schools in Sagar district with 226 boys on the roll.

The provision for the teaching of Urdu has been made in five :hools in the district Of these the oldest Urdu school of Parkota as founded in 1881, where all subjects were taught through the edium of Urdu. This was exclusively meant for girls In 1901 Urdu school was opened at Macharyai and later in 1918, two iools were started in Sagar Bazar and Sukrawari at Sagar. Besides se, there is a Urdu school at Khurai

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The movement of social education in Madhya Pradesh in ral, and in Sagar in particular, began when the Provincial l Education Scheme was launched on 1st May, 1948. It was a

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Social Education

The movement of social education in Madhya Pradesh in general, and in Sagar in particular, began when the Provincial Social Education Scheme was launched on 1st May, 1948. It was a

part of the general urge for a fuller life which followed in the wake of Independence The main objective of the scheme was 'to inspire the people to take a living interest in the affairs of the State and in the many problems of social reconstruction.' The three-fold media adopted to promote this programme was teachers, literature and audio-visual aids. The programme was put through in three sessions of social education camps in each year followed by an Adult Certificate Examination The department also arranged the follow-up activities to prevent newly literate adults from relapsing into illiteracy.

In 1952, an Enquiry Committee was appointed to enquire into the results of this scheme, and one of the consequences of its recommendations was that the seasonal courses were replaced by yearly courses With the formation of Social Education Association in Sagar in 1950 the scheme took firm root in the district. One aspect of the social education programme is the eradication of adult illiteracy In 1951, about 27,948 (12,693 men; 15,255 women) of the age-group 15 and above, needed to be educated The following statement shows the attempts made to remove illiteracy in Sagar district in the Second Plan period:—

Year	No of Adults made literates		Expenditure (Rs. in '000)
	Male	Female	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1956-57	207	89	2 69
1957-58	517	58	4.55
1958-59	846	145	3 10
1959-60	192	136	3.10
1960-61	416	78	3.08

Administratively, prior to 1954 the work of social education was being looked after by the Education Department. At present a District Welfare Officer of the Panchayat and Social Welfare Department is in charge of this work.

Literary and Cultural Traditions

In this account of the educational growth and development of Sagar district it might be useful to tell briefly the story of the literary and cultural traditions of Sagar. The earliest known literary figure

is Bhagavat, a Hindi poet, who lived in Garhakota in 1570. Hariballabha Tailaing, whose ancestors enjoyed a land grant from the Gond Queen Durgavati, was a reputed scholar of Sanskrit and has left behind a translation of the *Bhagwadgita* dated V. S. 1771. The literary traditions of Sagar were further continued by his descendants. His son Kumarmani, born in 1663 A. D., is credited with the writing of *Rasikpriya* (Sanskrit) and *Rasikvilas* (Hindi) which bear the stamp of scholarship. Later his grandson Krishnabhatt (born in 1688 A.D.), too won a name in the literary field. Krishnabhatt's genius was essentially poetic, and it was this trait which resulted in the composition of many works. Among his known literary writings are *Alamkar Kalanidhi, Vrittachandrika, Shrinagar Ras Madhuri* and *Durgabhakti Tarangini*. His translations of *Valmiki Ramayana* and *Upanishads* are of a high order. One more name which deserves a reference in this connection is Sukhdeo. He was a Jain writer of Sagar, and is credited with the authorship of *Vanika Priya,* a short poetic composition containing pieces of advice meant for the trading community.

Sagar has thus noteworthy literary traditions dating from the sixteenth century, but its rise as a seat of culture commences only with the rule of the Marathas in this region Many learned Sanskrit pundits of Sagar are known to have worked in the board called Dharma Mandal in the time of Raghoji Bhonsla III of Nagpur. In the court of Govind Rao Bundela lived Ghanshyam, who besides being a poet, was an astute politician The celebrated poet Padmakar, son of Mohanbhatt, and originally a descendant of a Brahmin family from Telingana shed lustre on the reign of Raghunath Rao, popularly called Appa Sahib. He is reputed for his works on valorous and erotic themes. So pleased was Raghunath Rao with his literary protege that he is said to have given him one lakh of rupees for a single verse. Padmakar was equally popular with the contemporary rulers of Jaipur and Banda in whose praise he has left fulsome eulogies. The other court poet was Motiram who calls Sagar superior to Agra The Fine Arts, too, throve in this time. One local artist has left excellent wall paintings at the Subedar bada They are exquisite delineation of the popular themes—amorous Krishna playing with lovelorn maidens of Gokul, scenes of *Rag Raginis,* etc. These murals have a striking effect due to a wash of bright pigments on the wall before any drawing was executed.

Coming late, we find poets Ramesh and Bandesh living in the court of Mardan Singh, the Chief of Garhakota. Bandesh, who was with Raja Prithvisingh, has written *Rasdeepak,* Poet Kare lived

at Rehli 150 years ago. Kunjilal, though blind by birth, was a good Hindi poet, who lived at Jaisinghnagar in Rehli tahsil. These mainly were the architects of the cultural heritage of Sagar district.

Cultural, Literary and Scientific Societies

The cultural and literary societies in Sagar are few. *viz.*, the Kabir Samaj, Janata Shiksha Samiti, Shri Nabhinandan Digambar Hitopdeshi Sabha, and Kishore Samiti. The earliest of these societies is the Kabir Samaj which, since 1830, has been assiduously working for the propagation of the philosophy of Kabir, a leading social reformer. The media chosen for this work are *bhajans* and *kirtans*. The Samaj receives funds mainly from the rents on its property and donations. The number of beneficiaries is estimated at five thousand. The second association named Janta Shiksha Samiti, started working after 1952. It seeks to promote educational, physical and cultural activities. It also runs a high school where cultural activities are frequently organised The Nabhinandan Digamber Jain Hitopadeshi Sabha, located in Bina, stands for the development of education. Founded in 1918, it is run mainly from the income derived from public donations. The Kishore Samiti of Sagar is of recent origin. It is a registered body and has branches in other parts of the country. The object of the Kishore Samiti is to foster a spirit of universal brotherhood among the youths through cultural and physical activities. Two important scientific associations working at Sagar are :—

Madhya Pradesh Geographical Society, Keshavaganj, Sagar.— With a view to popularising the subject of Geography among the masses, this Society was formed a few years ago. It also aims at carrying out original research on Geography The Society is financed through membership fee, public contributions and donations.

Khan Khoj Sangh.—This Sangh was founded in 1956 and started functioning actively in the following year primarily with the object of carrying out mineral survey in Sagar district and its adjoining areas. Since its establishment it has been devoting its attention to the survey of mineral deposits in the region.

Libraries

Out of 46 libraries in the district, eight are in the urban areas and 38 in rural areas. The Sagar town itself has five public libraries. Of these, Zila Granthalaya. Saraswati Vachanalaya, Janata Library, and Kutub Khana Library deserve a mention. The Zila Granthalaya is a Government managed library, started in 1955, under a scheme sponsored by the Central Government. The King Edward Library, now known as Janta Library, has been working

Navagrahas from Sun Temple, Rehli (now preserved in Saugar University Museum).

since 1871. It was formerly run by a private body, but in July 1959, its management was transferred to the Municipal Committee, Sagar. It contains about 5,841 books and receives important periodicals and newspapers. There are public libraries also at Khurai, Garhakota, Deori, Banda, Rehli, Maharajpur, Rahatgarh, Nariaoli and other places.

Museum

The district has only one Museum attached to the Department of Ancient Indian History, Culture and Archaeology, University of Saugar, Sagar. Started in 1951, it has now a representative collection of antiquities discovered at Tripuri, Sirpur and other places. Recently it has been further enriched by historical relics from Eran. On these the life size images of Varaha, Narsimha, and Gajalakshmi Naga are most noteworthy. The Coin Cabinet contains cast and tribal coins, and numerous other specimens of the Muslim period A few rare seals are also preserved. The material exhibited here is very interesting from the point of view of Brahmanical and Buddhist iconography, as there are numerous Gods and Goddesses of both the pantheons. The specimens are mostly of the Gupta and Kalachuri art, though a few also represent other Indian schools of art. A well-equipped library is attached to it.

CHAPTER XIV

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Little is known of the medical facilities which were available in the pre-British days in the areas comprising the present Sagar district beyond a general statement that the traditional *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* systems were practised by certain persons. The advent of the British in the early part of the 19th Century led to the gradual introduction of the western system of medicine in the district through the establishment of Allopathic hospitals and dispensaries. A beginning was made in this direction when a Military Hospital was set up at Sagar for treating the personnel of a unit of the British Army, then known as the Sagar Brigade. Although the exact year of the opening of this Hospital is not known, there is evidence to show that its two main wards were constructed as long ago as in 1824. Little appears to have been done for providing medical facilities to the general public in the district, until the formation of the Central Provinces, when a Medical Department was organised with a Surgeon General as the head of the department. He was assisted in every district by a Civil Surgeon, who, besides looking after medical relief, was also in charge of matters relating to public health. The organization of the Medical Department was followed by the establishment of a Main Dispensary at every district headquarters and, from time to time, of branch dispensaries at some other places. The Main Dispensary was looked after by the Civil Surgeon himself, while the branch dispensaries were placed in the charge of Indian Doctors, designated as Hospital Assistants. The cost of the branch dispensaries was defrayable partly from funds raised by local subscription and partly from grants or aid given by the Government. In the beginning, wherever the prescribed quota of private support was forthcoming for the opening of a dispensary whether towards the erection of the dispensary building or the maintenance of the medical establishment, a corresponding amount of aid was given by the Government.[1] Each dispensary of this kind had a Committee for its management, known as the Dispensary Fund Committee, which consisted of the Civil Surgeon and some local influential persons. This Committee had entire control over the expenditure of dispensary funds. A slight change in the apportionment of dispensary expenditure between the State and local

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1864-65, p. 55.

resources was made in 1866-67, when it was decided that all charges on account of professional supervision, such as the Civil Surgeon's allowance, the salaries of the Hospital Assistants and the like, along with the cost of certain European medicines, would be defrayed from the general revenues while all other expenses on account of Dressers, Compounders, Indian drugs, etc., would be borne by local contributions. Under this apportionment, about three-fifths of the entire cost of a dispensary fell upon the State treasury and the remaining two-fifths lay on local resources[1]. But the difficulty in the way of establishing such dispensary institutions lay not so much in the lack of subscriptions, but in the scarcity of trained Indian Doctors. This difficulty was partly met by the establishment of a Medical School at Nagpur in 1866-67 for the training of Indians in the profession of medicine. The result was that by 1876-77 dispensaries for the relief of the indigent sick existed, as a rule, at all district headquarters and tahsil stations in the Central Provinces.[2] At this time, there were nine dispensaries in the Sagar district—two in Sagar town (the Main Dispensary and the one at Sadar Bazar) and one each at Khurai, Rehli, Banda, Garhakota, Deori, Malthone and Shahgarh.[3] For a considerable time, there was a strong prejudice among the people against western medicines, with the result that for a time, those dispensaries were not popular in the district, as elsewhere in the Province. But in course of time, this prejudice was overcome and the dispensaries gained in popularity, as would be evident from the fact that whereas in 1876 the total number of indoor and outdoor patients treated at these dispensaries was 30,247, it rose to 47,618 in 1881, to 64,907 in 1885, to 74,007 in 1888[4] and to 81,713 in 1891. The following excerpts from the Administration Report of the Central Provinces in this connection may be interesting.[5]

> "It is very difficult to convince the people generally of the advantages of our system. They are hard to move and hard to win from old beliefs and prejudices; but earnest and efficient work must tell in the long run and gradually and steadily an impression is being made. Muhammadans resort to the dispensaries

1 Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1866-67, p. 85.

2. *Ibid,* 1876-77, p. xxviii.

3. *Ibid,* Appendix V 2.

4 *Ibid,* 1876-77, 1881-82, 1885-86 and 1888-89, Appendix V.

5. *Ibid,* 1881-82, p. xxvi.

more freely than Hindus, yet not only are the prejudices of Hindus being overcome, but *pari passu* with this the prejudices which would keep women away are generally being removed."

At about this time, a Lock Hospital also existed at the Sagar Cantonment for reducing the incidence of venereal diseases among the troops. This was done by the registration of prostitutes at the Hospital. This Hospital continued up to 1888-89 whereafter it is not mentioned in the records and appears to have been closed. The Sagar town had another dispensary in 1887-88, when a City Branch of the Main Dispensary, later called the Victoria City Branch, was established.

By about this time, in pursuance of a general decision taken by the Government in 1885, the management of all dispensaries, with a few exceptions, was made over to the Local Bodies[1]. The Victoria City Branch Dispensary and the dispensaries at Khurai and Deori were taken over by the Municipal Committees of Sagar, Khurai, and Deori respectively, while the Banda dispensary was transferred to the District Council, Sagar. The remaining dispensaries continued to be managed by Dispensary Fund Committees. The dispensaries at Malthone and Shahgarh were closed in 1879-80 and 1900 respectively, so that at the beginning of this century there were only seven dispensaries in the district, viz., the Sagar Main Dispensary and the Victoria City Branch in Sagar town and the dispensaries at Khurai, Rehli, Banda, Garhakota and Deori. The Sagar Main Dispensary had accommodation for 50 indoor patients while those at Garhakota, Khurai and Deori had for 16, 10 and 4 respectively. In addition to the above dispensaries, there was also a dispensary each in the Sagar Cantonment (the former dispensary at Sadar Bazar which was later transferred to the Cantonment Board) and at the District Jail besides a Police Hospital at Sagar. The Christian missionaries too maintained a dispensary at Etawah. A hospital for women under the Countness of Dufferin Fund was also established at Sagar.[2] This Hospital was later made a branch of the Sagar Main Hospital (the former Main Dispensary) and remained so until 1921 when it was again converted into a separate hospital—a position that obtains till today.

The number of hospitals and dispensaries as at the beginning of this century remained more or less uncharged for a long time as

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1. *Ibid*, 1885-86, p. 67.
2. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p. 211.

would be seen from the fact that in 1927, the district was still reported to have nine dispensaries (including one for women). These dispensaries provided indoor accommodation for 60 men and 14 women patients and treated, in that year 1,02,626 outdoor and 1,150 indoor patients.

The assumption of office in the Province by the Congress Ministry in 1938 effected further efforts for extending medical relief in the district. A dispensary was opened in the following year at Agasod in the Khurai tahsil by the District Council, Sagar. A committee was appointed in the same year to examine the indigenous systems of medicine practised in the Province and it was recommended by this committee "that medical relief on Ayurvedic and Unani lines should be extended on a large scale, wherever possible and that one Ayurvedic or one Unani dispensary should be established for every area ten miles in radius."[1] Although, these recommendations were accepted by the Government in principle, little was done to implement them, largely because of the demission of office by the Congress Ministry. It was only after the Ministry had resumed office in 1946 that action was initiated in this direction. To start with, in the same year, the Government sanctioned the establishment by the District Council, Sagar of one *Ayurvedic* dispensary each at Jaisinghnagar, Gourjhamar, Barodia Kalan or Bamora and Baraitha in the Sagar, Rehli, Khurai and Banda tahsils respectively. For this purpose, it sanctioned the payment of a recurring grant of Rs. 160 per annum to the District Council for each of these dispensaries.

At present there are 15 *Ayurvedic* dispensaries in the district at the following places :—

Tahsil (1)	Places (2)
Sagar	(1) Sagar town (2) Jaisinghnagar (3) Rahatgarh (4) Sinhora (5) Bilehara. (6) Shahpur. (7) Jalandhar. (8) Surkhi.
Relhi	(1) Sahajpur. (2) Maharajpur. (3) Gourjhamar.
Khurai	(1) Bhangarh. (2) Barodia Kalan
Banda	(1) Baraitha. (2) Shahgarh.

1. Report on the Committee appointed to examine the indigenous Systems of medicine in Central Provinces and Berar, 1939, P. 1.

The dispensary at s. no. (1) is run by the Municipal Committee, Sagar while the rest are managed by the respective Janapada Sabhas, which receive aid from the Government. The dispensaries at s. nos. (6), (7) and (8) are entirely managed by the Janapada Sabha, Sagar.

Apart from giving encouragement to the *Ayurvedic* system, the Government also paid attention to the expansion of medical facilities through the Allopathic system. The question regarding the reconstruction of the dispensary building at Rehli, which was originally built in 1864 and was almost in a dilapidated condition, was considered by the Government and eventually the construction of a new building at a cost of Rs. 30,000 was sanctioned in 1951. Of this amount, 50 per cent was paid by the Government, while the other 50 per cent was raised by local subscriptions. By about this time, two more dispensaries had been opened at Nariaoli and Bina by the Sagar Janapada Sabha and the Bina Municipal Committee, respectively.

Since the launching of the Five Year Plans, rapid strides have been made in the expansion of medical services in the district. It has already been seen that the hospitals and dispensaries were run either by Dispensary Fund Committees or Local Bodies, the Government giving them some small aid. The result was that the financial condition of these institutions was often unsatisfactory. To remedy this state of affairs, the Government decided to provincialize these institutions and took steps to take over their entire management. The Sagar Main Hospital was the first to be provincialized in 1954, which was followed by the provincialization of the Dufferin Hospital in 1956 and of the following institutions from the 1st August, 1958 :

Name of Dispensary (1)	Managed before provincialization by (2)	
1. City Dispensary	Municipal Committee..	Sagar
2. Khurai, Dispensary	Do.	Khurai
3. Deori Dispensary	Do.	Deori
4. Bina Dispensary	Do.	Bina
5. Rehli Dispensary	Dispensary Fund Committee	
6. Garhakota Dispensary	Do.	
7. Banda Dispensary	Janapada Sabha,	Banda
8. Agasod Dispensary	Do.	Khurai
9. Nariaoli Dispensary	Do.	Sagar

Later, Government hospitals were also opened at Rahatgarh and Shahgarh.

Medical Facilities in Rural Areas

Public Health Centres.—At the same time action was initiated to afford the much-needed medical relief in rural areas. With this end in view, Primary Health Centres, with various sub-centres, have been established by the Government in Development Block areas. Each Primary Health Centre is staffed by a qualified Medical Officer, a Health Visitor, four Midwives, a Compounder and a Sanitary Inspector, thus providing, under the direct supervision of a physician, the basic health services for a community. Until 1960, the following Primary Health Centres and sub-centres were established in the district :—

Name of Development Block	Name of Primary Health Centre	Name of Sub-centre
(1)	(2)	(3)
(1) Rehli ..	(1) Rehli	(1) Garhakota
		(2) Chulla
		(3) Patanbujurg
(2) Khurai ..	(2) Khurai ..	(1) Gadola
		(2) Khimlasa
		(3) Bardha
(3) Rahatgarh ..	(3) Rahatgarh ..	(1) Nariaoli
		(2) Bhaisa
		(3) Jalandhar
(4) Deori	(4) Deori	(1) Maharajpur
		(2) Basena
		(3) Jaitpur Kopra
(5) Banda (Binaika)	(5) Banda	(1) Pidarwa
		(2) Kandwa
		(3) Magardha
(6) Jaisinghnagar	(6) Jaisinghnagar	..

Source.—Brief Report of Activities of Health Department, Madhya Pradesh, 1960.

Maternity and Child Welfare

The activities of a Primary Health Centre include domiciliary maternity care in which the Health Visitor, who is a Midwife specially trained in the problems of the health needs of the mother and child, plays a vital role. This facility is being supplemented by the training of indigenous *Dais* at these centres and other institutions. Till 1960-61, 121 such *Dais* had been trained in the district.

Apart from these measures, institutional midwifery service is also rendered through maternity homes, which have been established in the district at two places, one at Jaisinghnagar in the Sagar tahsil and the other at Chulla in the Rehli tahsil. *Matru Grihas* have also been provided in 85 villages where women can go for their confinement under the care of an indigenous practising *Dai* in attendance. A Child Welfare Centre is also being run in Sagar town by the Municipal Committee.

In addition to these facilities, a maternity home is also run by a private agency at Katra Bazar, in the Sagar town. This was established by the Central Provinces and Berar Matru Sewa Sangh in 1947. It has accommodation for 40 beds and its staff includes two honorary part-time Doctors and four Nurses. Under a Central Government scheme, an Auxiliary Nurses-*cum*-Midwife Training School, with a capacity of 10 seats, was started at this Home in 1957. A Family Planning Centre is also functioning here, since 1957.

PUBLIC HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES

The Table below shows the number of beds, medical staff, special facilities, etc., available at each hospital or dispensary under the management of the Medical Department :—

Name of Hospital/dispensary	No. of Beds	No. of Doctors	No. of other Para-medical personnel such as Nurses, Compounders, etc.	Special facilities if any
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Sagar Tahsil		
(1) Main Hospital, Sagar town.	50	9 (including the Civil Surgeon)	4 Nurses 8 Compounders	(1) It is provided with an X-ray apparatus.

Government Hospital, Sagar.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
				(2) An anti-rabies treatment Centre is also located here.
(2) City outdoor Dispensary Chameli Chauk, Sagar town.	Nil	2	1 Midwife .. .. 2 Compounders ..	A Leprosy Clinic Centre is also located here.
(3) Dufferin Hospital, Sagar town.	22	1	3 Nurses .. .. 2 Compounders ..	A training centre for Dais was attached to this Hospital until 1st April 1961 when it was discontinued.
* (4) Rahatgarh Hospital	6	1	1 Compounder .. 3 Midwives .. 1 Health Visitor .. 1 Sanitary Inspector	A Family Planning Centre and a Dais Tranining Class are also run here.
(5) Nariaoli Dispensary	..	1	1 Compounder .. 1 Health Visitor .. 4 Midwives ..	The Health Visitor and the four Midwives are sanctioned for a Maternity & Child Welfare Centre which is yet to start functioning.
		Rehli Tahsil		
* (1) Rehli Hospital ..	10	NA	NA	
(2) Garhakota Hospital	9	1	1 Compounder	
* (3) Deori Hospital ..	4	1	1 Compounder 1 Midwife	
		Khurai Tahsil		
* (1) Khurai Hospital ..	16	2	6 Midwives 1 Health Visitor 1 Sanitary Inspector	
(2) Bina Hospital ..	4	1	1 Compounder	
(3) Agasod Dispensary	..	1	1 Compounder	
		Banda Tahsil		
* (1) Banda Hospital ..	22	NA	NA	A special 12 bedded ward for the Police personnel engaged in anti-dacoity operations is also attached to this Hospital.
(2) Shahgarh Hospital	NA	NA		

Note.—The starred institutions also serve as Primary Health Centres.

The number of outdoor and indoor patients treated at these institutions during the period from 1956 to 1960 is given below :—

Year	Outdoor Patients	Indoor Patients	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1956	2,44,204	6,458	2,50,662
1957	2,49,188	4,957	2,54,145
1958	2,72,076	5,390	2,77,466
1959	2,83,896	5,462	2,89,358
1960	2,30,923	5,509	2,36,432

Source.—Civil Surgeon, Sagar.

Organization of the Medical Department

The activities of the Medical Department in the district are in the charge of the Civil Surgeon, who works under the administrative control of the Director of Health Services. An Additional Civil Surgeon is also posted in the district since 1957 for dealing with matters relating to public health and Primary Health Centres.

The income and expenditure of the Government managed and aided medical institutions in the district, during 1927 was Rs. 58,273 and Rs. 36,195, respectively. The expenditure rose to Rs. 88,656 by the end of the First Five Year Plan and during the first year (1960-61) of the Third Plan it further rose to Rs. 1,78,568 as shown below :—

		Rs.
1.	Pay, allowances and miscellaneous expenditure over Government Hospitals and Dispensaries.	93,913
2.	On Primary Health Centres	61,197
3.	Grants to Ayurvedic Dispensaries ..	22,457
4.	On Dais Training	1,001
	Total ..	1,78,568

In addition to the hospitals and dispensaries already described, there are also some medical institutions which are run by other departments of the State and Central Governments. These are—

Police Hospital, Sagar.—This is managed by the State Police Department and is staffed by an Assistant Medical Officer, a Compounder and a male Nurse. Its bed strength is 20.

Military Hospital, Sagar.—This is one of the oldest Military Hospitals in India, having been set up some time in the early part of the 19th century, as already stated. During the last World War, it was converted into a large combined Military Hospital and was commanded by an Officer of the rank of Lt. Col. R.A.M.C./I.M.S. Following the general demobilization of the armed forces after the War, the bed-strength of this Hospital was reduced and it was supervised by an officer of the rank of a Captain. Its present bed-strength is between 30 and 35, which can be increased to 160 in times of emergency.

Cantonment Hospital, Sagar.—This is located in the Cantonment area and is managed by the Cantonment Board with the aid of the Central Government. Its bed-strength is seven and is staffed by a Medical Officer, a Nurse and two Compounders.

Railway Hospital, Bina.—This Hospital was exclusively meant for the railway personnel and their families until 1961, when it was opened also to the general public for treatment on payment. It is a full-fledged Hospital providing accommodation for 12 indoor patients and its staff includes four Medical Officers.

The Saugar University has also a Hospital of its own for treating the students and staff residing in the University campus. It provides accommodation for four indoor patients and its staff includes a Medical Officer, two Midwives and a Sanitary Inspector. A hospital, run by a Swedish Missionary, is also located at village Rithor, about two miles from Khurai. At present, its activities are confined to some maternity cases only.

PRIVATE HOSPITALS AND NURSING HOMES

Until 1937, there were only two private medical practitioners (Allopaths) in the Sagar town, but their present number is 40. Of these, two are eye specialists and five are Lady Doctors. In the interior of the district, there are 10 private Doctors, including an eye specialist at Khurai. There is no private hospital or nursing home in the district except a private hospital at Khurai, known as the National General Hospital which is owned by one Dr. T. M. Thomas and his wife, who is also a Doctor. This Hospital has a bed-strength of 30 and is equipped with an X-ray apparatus, laboratory, etc. So much about the medical facilities in the district.

SANITATION

Urban Sanitation

Turning to the public health services, it has already been mentioned earlier that the Civil Surgeon also performed the duties of the Public Health Officer, in which capacity he advised the Deputy Commissioner on matters regarding sanitation and worked with him for ameliorating the sanitary conditions of the district. But no concrete steps were taken in the district in the sphere of public health until 1867, when Municipal Committees were constituted for the towns of Sagar, Khurai and Deori. These Committees, like other such Committees in the Provinces were entrusted with the conservancy of the towns and in order to give professional support to their efforts in this direction, the Civil Surgeon was appointed their *ex-officio* Sanitary Officer. He made the conservancy and sanitation of the Sagar town his special care and also advised the civil authorities on all sanitary problems which arose in the outlying towns.[1] Later, Municipal Committees were also constituted for the towns of Bina and Garhakota.

Rural Sanitation

At the same time, attempts were also made for introducing a conservancy system in rural areas. A small beginning was made in this direction in 1866-67 when Village Conservancy Rules and Brief Practical Sanitary suggestions were prepared and their Hindi translation was supplied to the principal landholders.[2] In the following year, a Sanitary Commissioner was appointed for the whole Province for supervising and advising district officers on all matters connected with conservancy, sanitation and hygiene, his agency at the district level being the Civil Surgeon. In the decade that followed, some more literature on public health such as *Public Health Rules, Practical Hints on Sanitation, Sanitary Primer,* etc. was published in all the languages of the Province and circulated in every town and village for familiarising the people with sanitary principles. The Heads of these Committees were charged with the duty of seeing that these were carried out as far as possible. But while in the Municipal areas there was some machinery to enforce the observance of these rules, there was no agency whatever in the other areas. To meet this difficulty, rules were framed in 1885-86 under the Land Revenue Act, by which an obligation was imposed

1 Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1864-65, p. 57.

2. *Ibid,* 1864-65, p. 56 and 1866-67, p. 89.

on village headmen of keeping their villages in good sanitary condition.[1] Since no improvement of a permanent character was effected in villages, these rules were amended in 1888-89 for stimulating the action of the village headmen in sanitary matters. Another sanitary reform introduced in the same year was the constitution of a Sanitary Board as a consultative and executive agency in the Province.[2] Under the auspices of this Board, action was initiated in the district in 1892-93 towards the improvement of rural water supply, and by 1904-05 a sum of Rs. 25,000 was spent on this account. Of this, an amount of Rs. 9,000 was granted from the Provincial and District Funds, while the remaining amount was given in the shape of private subscriptions and free labour for the construction of 18 new wells and improvement of 114 old wells. Another step taken in improving village sanitation was the extension of the Village Sanitation Act, 1889 in some selected villages of the district. Under this Act, village sanitation Panchayats were established, their main functions being the construction and repairs of tanks and wells, conservancy, clearing of village sites, etc. Towards the beginning of this century, the Act was in force in Etawa, Garhakota, Hirdenagar, Patna and Rehli.[3] In the period that following, the village sanitation Panchayats of Etawa, Hirdenagar and Patna were abolished and in the late nineteen-forties, these Panchayats existed only at Garhakota, Rehli and Rahatgarh. Following the establishment of Village Panchayats under the C. P. and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946 (I of 1947), all the village sanitation panchayats were abolished in 1948 and their functions relating to village sanitation, etc., were assigned to the village panchayats.

Rural sanitation was also included in the village uplift programme, which was launched by the Congress Ministry in 1939. An Organiser for village uplift work was appointed in the Province in the same year and his activities included conducting of village uplift training classes at many district places. Each district and tahsil had a village uplift committee, which carried on their activities in selected villages.[4] These committees continued to function in the Sagar district until the late 'forties when, consequent on the creation of Rural Development Department and later of the Planning and Development Department, their activities were taken over by these agencies.

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1. *Ibid*, 1887-88, p. 82.
2. *Ibid*, 1888-89, p. 67.
3. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906 p. 205.
4. Triennium Report of the General Administration of the Central Provinces, 1937-1940, p. 77.

Epidemic Dispensaries

At the same time, action was also taken to impart knowledge to the people on health matters, particularly in the prevention of epidemic diseases. To achieve this objective, peripatetic dispensaries, later known as epidemic dispensaries, were started during the nineteen-twenties. Each of these dispensaries was in the charge of a Sub-Assistant Health Officer, who worked directly under the Civil Surgeon. These dispensaries toured throughout the district and carried on health propaganda work by delivering lectures in vallages on epidemic diseases and other health subjects. In the Sagar district each tahsil had been provided with such a dispensary. Besides giving lectures on health matters, these dispensaries also gave treatment to patients at places visited by them, performed anti-cholera and anti-plague inoculations, particularly at fairs, disinfected wells and inspected vaccination work. These dispensaries are still continuing. They are provided with medicine chests, which are replenished from time to time, but their emphasis is more on the preventive than on the curative aspect.

Vaccination

Side by side with these measures, vaccination operations were also taken up by the Health Department as a preventive measure to counter the wide-spread prevalence of small-pox. The earliest reference we have to these operations in the Sagar district is in 1862, when 631 persons were vaccinated. This work was conducted by vaccinators under the superintendence of Civil Surgeons who worked under the overall supervision and control of the Sanitary Commissioner. Later, each Civil Surgeon was assisted in this work by an Indian Superintendent of Vaccination. Hospital Assistants were also required to take up vaccination as a regular part of their work in pursuance of an order issued in 1876-77. In 1871-72 only two vaccinators were employed in the district but this number rose to nine in 1876-77 and to 12 in the following year, a number which has continued more or less unchanged to the present. At the beginning of this century, vaccination was compulsory, under the Vaccination Act of 1880, only in the Municipal towns, viz., Sagar, Khurai and Deori, but in the open season it was carried out all over the district.[1] In the early stages, there was opposition to vaccination, but gradually this died away, as would be evident from the following Table:

Year (1)	Total number of vaccinations (2)
1861	631
1871-72	8,325

1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p. 211.

1881-82	22,575
1891-92	20,490

The vaccination staff also rendered assistance in sanitation, particularly in matters of village conservancy. In order to equip it for this work, the staff was made to attend lectures on hygiene at the Nagpur Medical School.[1] But rural sanitation made slow progress, owing partly to paucity of funds and partly to ignorance in rural areas about sanitary matters. The result was that epidemic diseases like cholera, small-pox, etc., occurred in the district frequently as will be seen later. To combat cholera, anti-cholera medicines were issued to the staff of the Vaccination and Police Departments,who were aided in the district by a special Assistant Surgeon and hospital staff. At the same time, vaccination operations, which were handed over to the Local Bodies in 1907-08, were also pushed up. Vaccination was made compulsory also in the Sagar Cantonment area, in Bina Municipal town and in Bamorah town, which had a Notified Area Committee. A bill to amend the Vaccination Act of 1880 was passed into law in 1931 so as to make it applicable also to the rural areas For a time, the District Council, Sagar, was unwilling to introduce compulsory vaccination in the areas under its jurisdiction and it was only in 1946 that the amended Act was given effect to by the Council. The vaccination work in rural areas was taken over in 1948 by the Janapada Sabhas which replaced the District Councils, while in urban areas it continued to be the responsibility of Municipal Committees. An Assistant Superintendent of Vaccination was appointed by each of the Janapada Sabhas of Sagar, Khurai and Banda to supervise this work. The following Table shows the vaccination work carried out in the district in recent years:—

Year	Primary vaccination	Re-vaccination
(1)	(2)	(3)
1956-57	31,737	36,705
1957-58	27,072	29,911
1958-59	29,105	56,464
1959-60	28,153	57,916

Public Health Legislation

As has been seen, public health administration, in the main, was the responsibility of the Local Bodies. But it was noticed that

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1881-82, p. XXV.

their administration was unsatisfactory. Very few Local Bodies had properly qualified Medical Officers to advise them on public health measures and the result was that whenever epidemic diseases broke out, the district authorities were unable to effectively deal with them, more so because Government had little powers to get proper public health measures executed through the Local Bodies. The question of securing such powers through a comprehensive legislation was taken up in 1939, when a committee was appointed to draft a Public Health Bill. It was, however, only in 1949 that this Bill was passed into law, the Act being known as the C. P. and Berar Public Health Act, 1949 (XXXVI of 1949). The Act provided for the constitution of a Public Health Board, the functions of which, among others, were to advise Government on all matters connected with public health including town improvement schemes, water supply and drainage schemes, municipal and village sanitation, measures against epidemics, etc. The Act also prescribed various measures of control over mosquito eradication, food, fairs, festivals, burial and burning grounds, etc.[1]

Administrative Set-up

As stated earlier, the public health administration in the district was supervised by the Civil Surgeon, Sagar, until 1957 when an Additional Civil Surgeon was posted in the district to look after this work. The Additional Civil Surgeon also supervises the working of the Primary Health Centres and coordinates the public health activities of the Local Bodies and Development Blocks. The Medical Officer of a Primary Health Centre is also the Health Officer and exercises the statutory powers of the health or sanitary authority in his area.

A Malaria Medical Officer, with the necessary staff, has also been posted in the district since 1959 under the National Malaria Eradication Programme. He is under the immediate control of the Assistant Director of Public Health, Malaria, Jabalpur.

The primary responsibility for the maintenance of public health in urban areas continues to rest with Municipal Committees, which are at present constituted for the towns of Sagar, Khurai, Deori, Bina and Garhakota. The Sagar Cantonment Board looks after the public health of the Cantonment area. These bodies have their own separate staff for discharging this responsibility.

1. M. P. General Administration Report, 1946-47 to 1950-51, p. 13.

The responsibility for the improvement of health conditions and sanitation arrangements in rural areas rests with the Janapada Sabhas, which have their own Sanitary Inspectors for supervising the sanitary work carried out by Gram Panchayats. The Primary Health Centres, mentioned earlier, also render services in these areas in the sphere of public health by imparting education on health, controlling communicable diseases, looking after sanitation, etc.

Activities of Health and Sanitary Organization

Water Supply.—Although several steps have been taken from time to time to improve urban as well as rural water supply in the district, Sagar is the only town which has so far been able to get protected water supply. The Sagar town water supply scheme was executed in 1959 by the Public Health Engineering Department on behalf of the Municipal Committee, Sagar, to which a loan of Rs. 40 lakhs was sanctioned by the State Government.

In the rural areas, efforts are being made to improve water supply by constructing and renovating drinking water wells. The Table below shows the number of wells constructed and renovated in recent years:—

Year	No. of wells constructed	No. of wells renovated
(1)	(2)	(3)
upto 1958	44	36
1958-59	23	87
1959-60	47	28
1960-61	25	13

Source.—Development Commissioner, Madhya Pradesh.

The other activities of the public health agencies include construction of latrines and soakage pits in the areas covered by Development Blocks. The work done in this direction is shown in the Table below:—

Year	No. of soakage pits constructed	No. of latrines constructed
(1)	(2)	(3)
Upto 1958	2,094	Nil
1958-59	Nil	210
1959-60	1,226	295
1960-61	1,836	115

Source.—Development Commissioner, Madhya Pradesh.

RESEARCH CENTRES AND INSTITUTIONS

The Sagar branch of the Indian Medical Association is the only institution in the district where subjects relating to medical and public health are discussed periodically, among its members.

Family Planning

The scheme for Family Planning was extended in the Sagar district in 1959 when three Family Planning Centres were opened at Banda, Rahatgarh and Khurai. This was followed by the opening of two more such Centres at Deori and Rehli in the succeeding years. In addition to these, a Family Planning Centre has also been established at the Sagar Maternity Home. The activities of these Centres include education on Family Planning through lectures, film shows, distribution of contraceptives, sterilization, etc.

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT

Judging from the cases that were treated at the medical institutions in the district, it would appear that the most common diseases are: malaria, respiratory diseases like tuberculosis, leprosy, guinea-worm, filaria, trachoma, intestinal worms, etc. Apart from these, the epidemics of cholera, small-pox and plague were also prevalent in varying degrees in the district.

Malaria

The district, as it abounds in tanks, hills, hollows and forests, has been an hyper-endemic area for malaria since long. A malarialogical survey of the district conducted in 1910-11 revealed that while villages in the open cultivated tracts were healthy, with an average spleen rate of seven per cent, the villages in the narrow Sonar valley to the north of the hill range running south-west were highly endemic. For example, Jamania and Silari villages in the Rehli tahsil had a spleen rate as high as 25 and 40 per cent respectively.[1]

The earliest statistics we have about the incidence of malaria are for 1881-82, when 9,369 persons died in the district from this disease[2]. It swept the district in an epidemic form again in 1902

1. Report on the Administration of Central Provinces, 1912-13, p. 10.
2. *Ibid*, 1881-1882, App. V-2.

when Deori, Dhana, Rehli, Garhakota and a few other places, in particular, suffered most. It reappeared in a virulent form again in 1908 when 70.7 per cent of the total deaths were among children under 10 years of age. Since then malaria has been prevalent almost every year to the extent that until 1954 it contributed to the main bulk of mortality in the district, claiming between 60 to 75 per cent of the total deaths annually.

Anti-malaria Measures.—In the beginning anti-malaria measures consisted of the sale, at a nominal cost, of quinine tablets to the public at medical institutions and through the agency of Local Bodies. The distribution of quinine became almost free by 1939 when every important village was provided with a quinine vendor, who was usually the local school teacher In recent years, many steps have been taken to control and eradicate malaria Besides quinine, free distribution of resochin and other anti-malaria drugs have also been started. But the most important step taken was the stationing at Sagar since 1959 of a unit of the National Malaria Eradication Organization under a Malaria Medical Officer, whose jurisdiction extends to the Damoh district also. The other staff of the Unit consists of an Assistant Unit Officer, five Senior Malaria Inspectors, five Junior Malaria Inspectors, two technicians and others. The activities of the Unit include D D. T. spraying of villages, which had three rounds until 1960 The number of villages sprayed in the Sagar and Damoh districts during 1959-60 and 1960-61 was 1,011 and 1,257 respectively As a result of these operations, the incidence of malaria has been considerably reduced and the spleen rate in the district has fallen from 17.6 per cent in 1959 to 9.8 per cent in 1960-61. Likewise, the infant parasite rate has come down from 0.3 per cent in 1959-60 to zero in 1960-61.

The Unit has also undertaken since 1960, another measure, viz., passive institutional surveillance by which cases of malaria occurring in the entire community are detected and steps are taken to treat them.

Respiratory Diseases

Among the respiratory diseases, the incidence of pulmonary tuberculosis is the highest in the district There is evidence to show that it was prevalent in the last quarter of the 19th century. Respiratory diseases were responsible for high mortality in the district in 1927-28, when the percentage of deaths was the second highest in the Province.[1] Subsequently pulmonary tuberculosis was found to

1. Annual Report of the Public Health Department, C. P. & Berar for 1927-28, p. 12.

be accountable for 251 deaths in 1934-35. In the period that followed, the incidence of this disease remained more or less the same, for, in 1950 as many as 347 deaths were attributed to it. In recent years, it seems to be rapidly spreading in the district, as would be evident from the following Table:—

Year			No. of deaths from tuberculosis including other respiratory diseases	Estimated prevalence.
(1)			(2)	(3)
1956-57	..	..	1,066	3,000
1957-58	..	..	1,214	3,100
1958-59	..	..	1,172	3,300

Source. —Civil Surgeon, Sagar.

The disease is widely prevalent in the urban areas, particularly in the Sagar town, where ill-ventilated and crowded houses, used as bidi factories, contribute to its increase.

Anti-tuberculosis Measures.—Preventive measures for the control of tuberculosis have been started in the district only about a decade ago. A beginning was made in 1950 when a Tuberculosis Relief Society was formed in the district. This Society did propaganda work against tuberculosis through public meetings, etc. This was followed by the introduction of B. C. G. Vaccination in 1955. Steps are also being taken to improve the environmental and socio-economic conditions of the people through Community Development Programmes.

Apart from these measures, the Government have recently sanctioned a scheme for the establishment of a 50 bedded T. B. Hospital and a 10 bedded T B Clinic at Sagar at a cost of Rs 4,37,181.

Leprosy

According to a survey conducted in 1954 by a Committee for the control of leprosy in the various districts of Madhya Pradesh, the total number of leprosy cases in the Sagar district was estimated to be 750, the incidence of the disease per 1,000 of the total population being 0.8.

Special facilities for the treatment of leprosy are provided only at the Sagar City Outdoor Dispensary, where a Leprosy Outdoor Clinic is functioning. The figures of attendance at this Clinic for 1956, 1957 and 1958 are 24, 65 and 217, respectively.

Guinea-worm

This disease is prevalent mostly in the Banda tahsil and in some parts of the Rehli tahsil. It is mainly caused by the drinking of water from step-wells which are contaminated with infected cyclops. As a preventive measure, these wells have been closed in the areas covered under Community Development Programme

Filaria

A filaria survey team conducted a sample survey of the district in 1959 and estimated that in some parts of the Sagar town filaria infestation was five per cent while in the district as a whole it was two per cent. Suitable measures are being taken to check the disease.

Trachoma

Apart from the normal measures undertaken for the treatment of this disease, Eye Camps are organized at different places in the district since 1956. A Surgical and Eye Camp is also held at the Sagar Main Hospital since this year. Free treatment and diet are given to the indoor patients at these camps.

Epidemics

Cholera.—Cholera has been known to occur in the district for about a century. In 1864-65 "it visited every district of the Central Provinces in a more or less severe form, some districts being visited twice during twelve months."[1] Following the Bundelkhand famine of 1868-69, it broke out again in the district claiming as many as 8,376 deaths. Before the end of the 19th century it reappeared in the district in an epidemic form in 1876, 1887, 1891 and 1895 and was responsible for 1,955, 562, 638 and 707 deaths respectively. Of the 707 deaths in 1895, 206 were in the Sagar town alone. In the present century, this scourge has been taking its toll with alarming frequency as may be seen in the Table below:—

Year (1)	No. of deaths (2)
1906	1,119
1912-13 1913-14 1918-19 1920-21	3,915

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1864-65, p. 56.

(1)		(2)
1931	.. ..	929
1935 1938 1941	.. ..	N.A.
1945	.. ..	1,635
1948	.. ..	283
1952	.. ..	653

NOTE.—The figures for the years 1945, 1948 and 1952 are for the combined districts of Sagar and Damoh.

In recent years the incidence of this disease has been markedly low as can be seen from the fact that while in 1957-58 and 1958-59 there were 59 and 91 deaths, respectively, in the two succeeding years no mortality was noticed.

Although impure water and unsatisfactory conservancy are the basic causes for the outbreak of cholera, in the past, the disease was often disseminated either by emigrants or at fairs and religious gatherings. For instance, its outbreak in 1876 was caused by emigrants from the former North Western Provinces and Gwalior State[1] Likewise, during the epidemic of 1891, persons returning from the Garhakota Fair carried the infection through the Damoh and Jabalpur districts[2]. Again, the epidemic of 1935-36 had its origin at the Bandakpur[3] Fair, where the infection was imported by the people. who had earlier attended the Allahabad Fair The returning pilgrims from the Bandakpur Fair, in their turn, carried the infection not only to the other parts of the Sagar district, but also into some other neighbouring districts like Jabalpur, Mandla, etc

Anti-Cholera Measures.—Several measures, both preventive and curative, have been taken from time to time, to check the ravages of cholera. The earlier measures consisted of disinfection of wells, distribution of cholera medicines, application of Special Cholera Regulations in affected areas, etc Later anti-cholera inoculations were also started. This was followed by the opening of isolation hospitals in municipal towns in 1939 and. from the following year, of the continuous application of Special Cholera Regulations in all the

1. *Ibid*, 1877-78, p. xxxviii.
2 *Ibid*, 1891-92, p. 105.
3. This place, now in the Damoh district, formed a part of the Sagar district between 1932 and 1956.

affected areas of the district. Apart from these normal measures, a 'Cholera Campaign Week' is organized in the district every year when anti-cholera inoculations are carried out on a mass scale in all the road side and river side villages and in such villages which have a bad cholera history.

Small-pox.—Small-pox has been known to rage in this district as elsewhere almost from time immemorial. The earliest recorded evidence available about this disease is for the year 1875, when it prevailed in the district in the form of a severe epidemic, causing as many as 4,447 deaths, (at the rate of 8.4 per mille of the population)[1]. Although in the period that followed its ravages were not so great, nevertheless it appeared in the district frequently causing considerable mortality, as is shown in the following Table :—

Year	No. of deaths
(1)	(2)
1876-77	339
1879-80	622
1884	718
1887	297
1895	476
1905	1,114
1906	1,199

After the first decade of the present century, the incidence of this disease was low until the 'fifties when it was again prevalent in an epidemic form. The extent of mortality from small-pox during the 'fifties is indicated below:—

Year	No. of deaths
(1)	(2)
1952	664
1954-55	161
1955-56	218
1956-57	191
1958-59	107

1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p. 37.

Anti-smallpox Measures.—The only preventive measure against small-pox so far known is vaccination, which was undertaken in the district, as already described. This was supplemented by the enforcement of the Small-pox Regulations and the observance of 'Vaccination Week' every year.

Plague.—Although plague made its first appearance in the Central Provinces in 1898-99, it occurred in the Sagar district in the form of a severe epidemic in 1903-04 when it was responsible for 3,248 deaths. It was again prevalent in the district in a virulent form in 1915, 1917, 1918 and 1920 when the death toll was 1,092, 1,287, 1,174, 1,013 respectively. Subsequently, plague reappeared in 1927, 1939, 1947, 1948, 1949 and 1950. Thereafter only some sporadic cases of plague occurred annually until 1953, from which time, the district has been completely free from this epidemic. The Table below gives the figures of seizures and deaths from plague during the 'forties :—

Year	Seizures	Deaths
(1)	(2)	(3)
1947	3,208	765
1948	2,811	1,163
1949	291	109
1950	1,061	496

Note.—These figures are for the combined district of Sagar and Damoh.

Anti-plague Measures.—Whenever plague occurred, suitable preventive measures, such as inoculation, evacuation, isolation, disinfection and rat destruction work, etc., were undertaken. The rat destruction work was effected through various devices such as cynogassing of rat burrows in houses, baiting of rats with barium carbonate, etc. Besides these measures, Plague Regulations framed under the Epidemic Diseases Act were also enforced in the district since 1927.

VITAL STATISTICS

The beginning of vital statistics in the former Central Provinces dates back to the year 1864-65, when registration of births and deaths was introduced in some important towns and in a few selected rural areas. This work was extended to the entire Province in 1870[1].

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1864-65, p. 56 and 1870-71, p. 90.

In the beginning, the agency for the registration of these statistics in towns was the municipal police, on the abolition of which, subsequently, the work was entrusted to the district police. In the rural areas each police station maintained a register of births and deaths on the basis of reports submitted by the village Kotwar. The Kotwar's report book was checked by the Civil Surgeon, Superintendent of Vaccination and officers of the Revenue and Police Departments. Later, every Mukaddam or Patel was also required under the Land Revenue Act to report to the police station all births and deaths occurring in his village The reporting of births and deaths was compulsory in towns having Municipal Committees, Notified Area Committees and Cantonment Boards, but was not so in the other areas.

The compilation of vital statistics at the district level was the responsibility of the Civil Surgeon, while at the provincial level the Director of Public Health (now designated as Director of Health Services) performed this work.

Although the registration of vital statistics was nowhere completely satisfactory, towards the beginning of this century, it was found comparatively more satisfactorily done in the Sagar district than elsewhere in the Province[1] The Table below gives the percentage growth of population, along with the average birth and death rates in the district during the decades from 1881-1890 to 1941-1950 :—

Decade	Percentage growth (—) (+)	Average birth rate per mille	Average death rate per mille
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1881-1890	+ 4.4	43.7	38.4
1891-1900	— 20.41	30.3	44.7
1901-1910	+ 15.24	51.51	38.27
1911-1920	— 2.38	N.A.	N.A.
1921-1930	+ 3.13	41.46	32.80
1931-1940	+ 9.56	45.6	37.4
1941-1950	+ 6.56	35.6	30.0

It may be of interest to note here that the birth-rate during the decade 1881-1890 was the highest, and the death-rate the second highest in the Province. Again, during the decade ending 1900, the

1 Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Saugor District, 1906, p. 36.

death rate was higher than in any district, except Nimar, while the birth-rate was the lowest in the Province.[1] The excess of deaths over births in this decade (1891—1900) is easy to explain. It has already been seen in an earlier Chapter how this decade witnessed a cycle of famine years from 1892 till practically the end of the century, causing considerable suffering and distress to the people. It is a fact of general observation that epidemic diseases always follow a famine and the period under review was no exception to this phenomenon. As has been noted earlier, there was an outbreak of cholera in 1891 and 1895 and of small-pox in 1895 which caused heavy mortality. These epidemics were accompanied in 1894 and 1895 by dysentery and diarrhoea which together accounted for 586 and 1.228 deaths, respectively. The only other decade in which the population registered a decrease is the period 1911-1920. This decade was noted for its unusual unhealthiness in as much as it witnessed the visitation of a number of diseases in a severe epidemic form. There was the scourge of malaria which afflicted the district in 1915. This was followed by the epidemic of influenza of 1918-19 which decimated a large section of the population. The alarming death rate of 133.45 per mille which meant 72,253 persons in that year, was described as an unparalleled calamity in the records of the district. The other disease which contributed to heavy mortality in this decade was cholera, which was responsible for 3,915 deaths in 1912-13. 1913-14 and 1918-19. At the same time plague also raged in the district during 1915. 1917, 1918 and 1920 when it was accountable for 1,092, 1,287, 1,174 and 1,031 deaths, respectively.

Subsequent to this period the district appears to have been free from large-scale epidemics and thus the positive checks to the growth of population did not operate.

The Table below gives annual statistics of births and deaths, along with their rate, for the period from 1950-51 to 1959-60 :—

Year	Birth	Birth rate per mille	Death	Death rate per mille
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1950-51	22,310	21.83	17,819	17.43
1951-52	26,809	26.94	21,376	21.48
1952-53	37,933	37.91	28,532	28.51

1. Ibid.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1953-54	33,026	51.18	28,257	43.79
1954-55	37,963	58.47	28,792	44.35
1955-56	28,433	43.53	22,642	34.67
1956-57	16,586	25.24	12,931	19.68
1957-58	26,662	40.33	14,062	21.27
1958-59	26,445	39.77	16,319	24.54
1959-60	27,190	40.65	12,531	18.74

Source: Director of Health Services, Madhya Pradesh.

NOTE. *From 1950 to 1956 figures for the Damoh Sub-Division are also included*

It will be seen that there is almost a steady rise in the death-rate from 1951-52 to 1955-56. This is due to an increase in the mortality from diseases like malaria, tuberculoris, small-pox, etc., during this period as shown below :—

Year	Malaria	Tuberculosis including other respiratory diseases	Small-pox
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1951-52	2,164	2,651	664
1952-53	15,333	368	9
1953-54	17,367	262	8
1954-55	3,262	193	161
1955-56	8,023	1,252	218

Infant Mortality.—The following Table gives the rate of infant mortality in the district from 1956-57 to 1959-60 :—

Year	Infant mortality per 1,000 live-births
(1)	(2)
1956-57	143.99
1957-58	211.54
1958-59	121.21
1959-60	165.28

CHAPTER XV

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Labour Welfare

Most, if not all the activities that are intended to promote labour welfare in the district are undertaken by the Government. There is little non-official or voluntary effort in this respect. The Government machinery that is available for this purpose consists of a number of the labour class, and an administrative staff for enforcing them. The legislative measures that are in force in Sagar district can be broadly divided under the following four categories:—

(a) Measures for the welfare and security of factory labour.

(b) Measures relating to workers in shops and commercial establishments.

(c) Legislation to regulate wages.

(d) Legislation to ensure social security.

(a) All the Factories Acts from 1934 to 1947 were repealed and a new Act called the Factories Act, 1948, was enacted which incorporated several provisions for the welfare of labour. It laid down the minimum age of children to be employed in factories, restricted the hours of work of adults to 48-hours a week and prohibited the employment of women and children during night shifts. The Act also provided for the payment of over-time wages at double the usual rates and for paid holidays an leave. The Factories Act contains further provisions for the establishment of canteens, creches, rest-shelters, etc.

(b) The C. P. and Berar Shops and Establishment Act, 1947, was made applicable in Sagar town on the 19th January 1950. It was extended to the Cantonement area on the 28th February of the same year. The position continued up to the end of 1958, after which the Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958 (No. 25 of 1958), was brought into force, repealing the earlier Act. Under this Act the hours of work were fixed at a maximum of nine hours per day and a weekly holiday was provided for all workers. The minimum age of children to be employed was fixed at 12 years and their maximum hours of work were restricted to seven hours per day. Children were not permitted to work in shops and other establishments after 9 p. m. Inspectors were appointed under the

control of the Assistant Labour Commissioner, who periodically visited Sagar town and Cantonment to ensure proper observance of the provisions of the Act. The following Table shows the working of the Act :—

Year	No. of establishments inspected	No. of prosecutions launched	No. of convictions
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1956	650	112	9
1957	539	54	..
1958	1252	177	15
1959	336	5	127

NOTE. The figure of 127 is inclusive of convictions in respect of the years prior to 1959 as these were decided in 1959. At the end of October 1960 under the M. P. S. E. Act, 80 cases were pending for decision in court

(c) Two legislative measures were made applicable in Sagar district to ensure the payment of fair wages to workers. One is the Payment of Wages Act, 1936 which is intented to ensure the regular payment of wages and to prevent the exploitation of the wage-earner by arbitrary deductions and fines. The provisions of this Act are applicable to persons employed in any factory or in any railway in respect of wages or salaries below Rs. 400 per month. These provisions have been extended to certain classes of employees of the State Transport and in the construction Industry. The other legislative measure is the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Ordinance, 1962, which has been promulgated by the Governor in order to fix the minimum rates of wages in certain Scheduled Industries and to provide for certain other matters connected therewith. Under this Ordinance, the minimum rates of wages in respect of certain categories of employments have been fixed with effect from 1st January, 1959, as shown in the Table below :—

Category of employees	Sagar including an area of five miles from the municipal limits	All other places not included in column 2 but having a population of 5,000 and above	All other places not included in Column 2 and 3	Basic payment of rates of wages
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Employment in any Rice, Flour, Dal and Oil Mill, under any local Authority; on Construction or maintenance of roads or in Building Operations and in Stone Breaking or Stone Crushing.				
1. Clerical	75.00	50.00	45.00	Per month

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. Skilled	3.50	3.00	2.75	Per day
3. Semi-skilled	2.75	2.25	2 00	Do.
Unskilled				
4. Male	2.75	1.37	1.25	Do.
5. Female	1.50	1.12	1.00	Do.
6. Child	1.25	1.00	0.87	Do.
Employment in any Tobacco (including bidi making) Manufactory (In column 2, rates of wages will operate in Sagar including an area of 10 miles from Municipal limits).				
1. *Bidi* Roller	1.62	1.50	1.44	For 1,000 *Bidis*.
2. *Bidi* Sorter and Checker	75.00	65.00	60.00	Per month.
2. Bundle Wrapper and Paker.	65.00	55.00	50.00	Do.
Bhattiwala	5000	40.00	35.00	Do.
mployment in Public Motor Tra nsport (In column 2, rates of wages will operate all over Madhya Pradesh).				
Driver	90.00	..	..	Per month
Conductor	100.00	..	..	Do.
3. Mechanic . ..	100.00	..	..	Do.
4. Cleaner	60.00	..	..	Do.
5. Unskilled	50.00	..	..	Do.x

During the year 1959, under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, 40 establishments were inspected. 20 prosecutions were launched and 18 convictions were secured in the district.

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 was first made applicable to Glass Industry with effect from 16th February 1955. On 23rd February 1956, it was made applicable to Leather, Cement, Potteries and Lac Manufacturing industries. On 29th October 1956, Printing Presses, Cotton Ginning and Pressing industries were brought under the purview of the Act. On 30th December 1958, the Act was made applicable to Oil, Rice, Dal and Flour Mills, Local Authority, Bidi Making, Road Construction and Operation, Stone-Breaking and Stone-Crushing and Public Motor Transport. Under the Act, during the years 1957, 1958 and 1959 the number of establishments inspected was 19, 14, 15 and 40, respectively.

(d) The measures directed to ensure the social security and welfare of labour in the district are the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923; the Maternity Benefits Act, 1958; and the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952. Of these the Workmen's Compensation Act is administered in the district by the Collector and it provides for the payment of compensation for injuries received during employment, occupational diseases and deaths resulting from such injuries and diseases. During 1960, nine cases under this Act were disposed of in the district. The Madhya Pradesh Maternity Benefits Act, was made applicable from 1st January 1959, repealing the previous Act of 1930. Provision has been made under this Act for the payment of a cash benefit to women for specified periods before and after child-birth and for a compulsory period of rest after delivery and also before delivery, if notice is given. The number of factories covered under the Maternity Benefits Act, in the district were 41 in the year 1958, out of which 33 were *Bidi* factories. In the year 1959, the number was 49 out of which 37 were *Bidi* factories.

The Employees' Provident Fund Scheme, 1952, framed under the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952 came into force in its entirety with effect from the 1st November, 1952. The rate of contribution is 6¼ per cent of the basic wage and dearness allowance including cash value of food concession, if any. The Act applies to all establishments engaged in any of the Scheduled Industries employing 50 or more persons (20 or more persons in the case of newspaper establishments) and having completed three years of their existence. Qualifications for membership of the scheme prescribe that the basic wage, dearness allowance and cash value of food concession should not exceed Rs. 500 per month. Full accumulations with interest are refunded in the event of death, permanent disability, superannuation, retrenchment or migration from India for permanent settlement abroad and also after 15 years' membership. In other cases, the members own share of contribution together with the interest thereon is refunded along with the employees' contribution depending upon the length of membership.

In the district, benefits under the Employees' Provident Fund Scheme are given to Sagar Electricity Supply Co., and Patel Fine Arts and Litho Works, Sagar, and the number or workers benefited under the Scheme is 96 and 68, respectively.

Besides these benefits the Sagar Electric Supply Co., provides to its workers free electricity at the rate of one unit on every Rs. 5 of the

basic pay. Company also pays bonus equal to 10 per cent of the total annual emoluments.

The Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946 which applies to industrial establishments employing 100 or more workers, provides for the framing of Standing Orders laying down the conditions of employment of workers employed in the establishments. Both the Central and the State Governments have been empowered to extend the scope of the Act to establishments in any industry employing less than 100 workers or to any other class or classes of establishments or to exempt any establishment from any of the provisions of the Act.

The Labour Commissioner, Madhya Pradesh, is the certifying officer, for the Standing Orders for the entire State under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946. Standing Orders for the following undertakings were certified on the dates noted against them in the district :—

S. No.	Name of the concern	Date of certification
(1)	(2)	(3)
1	Sagar Electric Supply Co., Ltd., Sagar	18-12-1950
2	Lalloo Bhai Bahchar Bhai Bidi Firm, Sagar	10-10-1952
3	Bhagwandas Shobha Lal Bidi Firm, Sagar	10-10-1952
4	Brijlal Manilal Bidi Firm, Sagar	10-10-1952
5	Malaiya Oil Mills,, Sagar	22-8-1955
6	Chhotabhai Jethabhai Patel & Co., Sagar	7-4-1956
7	M/s Mohanlal Hargovind Das Bidi Factory, Sagar ..	24-8-1956
8	Patel Fine Arts Litho Printing Press, Sagar	15-2-1959

NOTE. As regards C. P. T. S. a common set of Standing Orders were certified for the Company as a whole on 9th October, 1952. No separate standing orders for C. P. T. S. Sagar have been certified as such.

Agricultural Labour

In Sagar district, about 80 per cent of the labourers who roll bidis are agriculturists. When the sowing and harvesting seasons are over they adopt bidi rolling as an additional occupation to supplement their income. and in this respect they also get benefit under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948.

For the agricultural labourers, one of the protective measures to safeguard their income is the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Ordinance, 1962, which guarantees the minimum rates of wages. This has been made applicable all over Madhya Pradesh with effect from the 1st January 1959. Despite varying conditions of work and differences in mode of payment in different regions, three categories of area had been evolved for the purpose of enforcing the wage rates fixed for each of them, as may be seen from the following Table: —

Class of Employees	Zone I	Zone II	Zone III
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Casual employees—			
Adult male	1.35 Per day	1.15 Per day	0.90 Per day
Adult Female	1.15 Per day	0.90 Per day	0.75 Per day
Adult employees on a monthly contract for a period of one month or more	30.00 Per month.	25.00 Per month.	20.00 Per month.

Explanation.—(i) Zone I shall comprise the areas included within the municipal limits of a corporation or a municipali y with a population of 50,000 and above and the places within 5 miles from the limits of such corporation or municipality.

(ii) Zone II shall comprise all places not included in Zone I but included within limits of a municipality or a notified area Committee with a population of 5,000 and above and the places within 5 miles from the limits of such municipality or notified area Committee.

(iii) Zone III shall comprise all places not included in zone I and II.

NOTE.—(a) The minimum rates of wages payable to a child shall be 50 per cent of the minimnm rates of wages fixed for adults.

(b) The money value of customary perquisites, if any, shall not count in occupation of the minimum wages paid to an employee.

(c) These rates of wages shall not operate to the prejudice of the rates of wages immediately prevailing before coming into force of these rates in any place and no employer can reduce the rate of wages (including the customary perquisites) in any place on the plea that these rates of wages are less than the rates of wages already being paid.

PROHIBITION

An important step to ensure social welfare in the district, especially the welfare of the poorer sections of society, was taken when the C. P. and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938, was brought into force in the district. It would be interesting to trace the trend of prohibition in this region prior to the taking of this decisive step. During the Bhonsla rule excise tax, known as *Kalali* or *Abkari*, was collected in the same way as land revenue. The early British

administration followed this practice and regarded the excise purely as a source of revenue. The Indian Excise Committee, 1905, appointed by the Government of India, examined the excise administration in every province. Referring to the position in the Central Provinces, the Committee observed:

"The Local Government has already taken the question of the reduction of the number of shops thoroughly in hand, and the Committee's advice, as in the case of the still-head duty, was in the direction of deprecating too sudden a reform. The country is difficult to traverse and the population comparatively scattered, and the wide distribution of out-stills in the past has spread the knowledge of distilling among the people. It is, therefore, necessary to proceed with caution in increasing the price of country spirit and reducing the number of shops lest the result should be, as it has been before, a replacement of licit by illicit consumption."

The Reformed Legislative Council, Central Provinces and Berar adopted, in August 1921, the following resolution:

"This Council recommends to Government to stop within as short a period as may be practicable, the sale of country liquor throughout the whole province."

The recommendation in this form was accepted by Government as a compromise with advocates of immediate and total prohibition. In accepting the amended resolution quoted adove, the Minister for Excise declared on behalf of the Government, "In view of the strong Indian sentiment in favour of total abstinence and in view of the dangers of abuse, Government is prepared to accept prohibition as the ultimate goal of its Excise Policy."

He, however, explained that while accepting prohibition as the ultimate goal, Government was unable to define any specific period within which that goal could be attained. As regards the administrative measures, he explained that to reduce drinking facilities as much as possible, measures such as reduction of shops, hours of sale, strength of liquor, limitation of supplies, facilities at fairs and festivals, would be followed much more vigorously than in the past, consistent with the avoidance of illicit distillation.

When the Congress Party came to power in 1937, the Government introduced the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Bill, 1937. The objective in introducing the prohibition bill was to 'ameliorate the moral, social, economic and physical condition of the

people. Thus Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938, was placed on the Statute Book and brought into force from the 1st April, 1938.

The Prohibition Act was made applicable in certain areas of the State including the whole of the Sagar district from 18th April, 1938. Later the sale and consumption of *Charas* throughout the State was also prohibited with effect from the 1st January, 1939. Under this Act the Excise Commissioner was appointed the Prohibition Commissioner and the District Excise Officers, Excise Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors, Excise Jamadars and Excise peons were invested with powers and the duties of a Prohibition Officer by notification, dated the 26th May 1938. Similarly, Officers of the Forest Department and the Police and Revenue officers were entrusted with certain powers under the Prohibition Act.

By notification, dated the 1st August, 1938, Anti-Drink Committee Rules were published for the setting up of Anti-Drink Committees in Municipal and Notified areas and Revenue Inspectors' Circles in order to carry on propaganda in favour of prohibition, to secure the co-operation of vountary and honorary workers in prohibition work, and to render assistance to the official preventive staff operating in their areas in the prevention, detection, investigation and prosecution of excise crimes.

In Sagar district, including present Damoh district, during 1946-47, 33 Anti-Drink Committees were formed for each Municipal area and each Revenue Inspectors' Circle These committees were subsequently abolished in 1948-49.

The following Table shows the number of classified offences of liquor and toddy in the district :—

Year	Smuggling of liquor	Illicit distillation	Dilution and using false measures	By licensees	By persons other than licensees	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1948	30	25	..	1	138	194
1949	111	65	1	10	68	255
1950	54	32	..	8	101	195
1951	29	98	..	3	134	264

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1952*	11	123	..	2	95	231
1953* ..	2	150	..	6	95	253
1954* ..	1	164	..	6	91	262
1955*	1	170	..	3	172	346
From 1st November, 1956 to 31st March,						
1958 ..	1	285	..	7	209	502
1958-59+ ..	..	218	..	11	143	372
1959-60+ ..	16	220	..	12	207	455
1960-61+ ..	6	176	..	10	120	312

NOTE.—(1) The mark* indicates calendar year.

(2) Figures from 1948 to 1955 are inclusive of Damoh Sub-division and other figures do not include Damoh Sub-division.

(3) The mark+ indicates financial year.

Source—(a) Reports on the Excise Administration of the Central Provinces and Berar.

(b) Office of the District Excise Officer, Sagar.

With effect from the 1st January 1948, the sale and consumption of Opium, *Ganja* and *Bhang* were also prohibited in the 'dry' areas, as it was found that after the introduction of the Prohibition Act, many liquor addicts in the 'dry' areas had taken to drugs. The following Table shows the number of classified offences of intoxicating drugs and opium in the district:—

Year	Hemp Drugs			Opium					
	Illicit cultivation of Ganja.	Other offences	Total	Smuggling of opium	Possession of opium in excess of the legal limit	Sale of duty paid opium without licence	Offences relating to Madak.	Other offences	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1948	1	56	57	32	1	2	12	5	52
1949	1	21	22	14	7	..	4	1	26

(1)			(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1950	..	..	..	21	21	9	..	..	..	..	9
1951	..	..	..	16	16	1	3	..	..	1	5
1952	..	..	1	10	11	..	..	..	2	2	4
1953	..	..	..	43	43	..	..	..	5	32	37
1954	..	..	5	46	51	..	..	..	..	21	21
1955	..	..	2	50	52	1	17	..	..	..	18
From 1st November, 1956 to 31st March,											
1958	..	..	11	187	198	80	..	..	9	..	89
1958-59	..	..	11	173	184	32	..	..	12	..	44
1959-60	..	..	12	231	243	11	42	..	13	..	66
1960-61	..	..	1	121	122	5	24	..	2	..	31

NOTE.—(1) Figures from 1948 to 1955 are for the calendar years and are inclusive of Damoh Sub-division, whereas the figures for the remaining period do not include Damoh Sub-Division and are for financial years.

Source.—(1) Report on the Excise Administration of the Central Provinces and Berar, 1948.

(2) Annual Reports on the Excise and Sales Tax Administration Madhya Pradesh, 1949, 1950, 1952 to 1955 and 1st November, 1956 to 31st March, 1958.

(3) Office of the District Excise Officer, Sagar.

The following Table shows the number of persons prosecuted, convicted, imprisoned, amount of fines imposed and amount of rewards paid to informers, captors, etc., against the offences referred to above in the district :—

Year	No. of persons: Prosecuted	Convicted	Imprisoned	Amount of fines imposed	Amount of rewards paid to informers, captors, etc.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1948	317	156	7	3,568	529
1949	322	178	19	5,283	404
1950	233	157	5	4,991	609
1951	280	208	10	5,288	72
1952	246	180	5	3,702	29
1953	340	225	11	6,611	295

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1954	367	277	20	10,046	443
1955	440	357	8	9,979	515
From 1st November, 1956, to 31st March,					
1958	682	609	7	12,038	708
1958-59	644	425	13	8,826	1,193
1959-60	694	624	11	11,489	1,047
1960-61	465	434	2	9,372	1,277

NOTE.—Figures for the calendar years 1948 to 1955 are inclusive of Damoh Sub-Division and the remaining figures are for financial years excluding Damoh Sub-Division.

One difficulty that was experienced in the enforcement of prohibition in the district was the presence of areas—some of them under former princely rulers—across the boundaries of the district where the prohibition law did not prevail. Declaring a belt round the district as "dry" area did not work satisfactorily. The Act was, therefore, amended so as to make it penal for any person to be in a state of intoxication, whatever the source of supply of the liquor may be. Other measures that have been taken to enforce the "dry" law include the prohibition of sale of certain tinctures and Ayurvedic *Suras*. The fees for the issue of permits FL XII-A for the consumption of foreign liquor were also raised by 10 times and the duty on foreign liquor was enhanced.

The following Table shows the number of permits issued in the district under Rule 7 of the Prohibition Act :—

Year	F. L. XII	F. L. XII-A
(1)	(2)	(3)
1951	14	1
1952	12	2
1953	16	1
1954	12	1
1955	8	..
1956	12	..
1957	6	..

(1)	(2)	(3)
1958	7	4
1959	8	3
1960	10	3
1961	12	3

NOTE.—Figures for the years 1951 to 1956 are inclusive of Damoh Sub-division and for the rest of the years figures do not include Damoh Sub-Division.

It was recognised from the beginning that a condition precedent to the successful prohibition policy was the creation of a strong public opinion against the evil of drinking. For this purpose a propaganda unit was established which used different media of publicity, such as, magic lanterns, lectures, posters, leaflets, films and songs. In the district, one paid propagandist was appointed in the year 1939, but the post was later abolished in 1942. Subsequently a full-time prohibition propagandist was appointed with effect from 15th August 1953 to devise ways and means for effective propaganda in favour of prohibition in the State. The institutions of social education were also utilised to emphasise the evils of drinking and explain advantages of abstinence to villagers.

The following Table shows the loss of revenue on account of the introduction of prohibition in the district :—

Year	Gross revenue from country spirits, country fermented liquor, malt liquors, wines and spirits, commercial spirits including denatured spirits and medicated wines, sale proceeds of excise, opium, hemp-drugs, etc.	Expenditure		Total Net excise revenue in the year
		Refunds	Expenditure on pay of officers and establishment allowances, rewards, etc.	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1950	18,161	..	36,956	18,795
1951	18,366	228	33,739	15,601
1952	21,844	369	43,380	21,905
1953	23,933	..	34,720	10,787
1954	22,289	43	31,730	9,484
1955	19,538	..	33,788	14,250

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
From 1st November, 1956, to 31st March, 1958 (excluding Damoh Sub-Division.)	51,358	..	43,479	7,879
1958-59	19,787	..	38,224	18,437
1959-60	21,887	238	41,426	19,692
1960-61	32,024	317	37,021	5,314

NOTE.—(1) Figures for the calendar years 1950 to 1955 are inclusive of Damoh Sub-Division.

(2) The figures for the financial years 1958-59 to 1960-61 do not include Damoh Sub-Division.

Control of Mahua

Possession and the sale of *mahua* which is the chief base employed for the manufacture of liquor was restricted by bringing into force the Madhya Pradesh *Mahua* Rules, 1959 in the district. The Rules aim at minimising chances of illicit distillation. During the financial year 1959-60 eight licences were issued for the possession and sale of *mahua* over five seers. During 1960-61 16 such licences and during 1961-62, 14 such licences were issued in the district.

Neera Vends

The scheme of *Neera* Vends was implemented in the district during the year 1958 when three licences were granted, one each for Sagar, Khurai and Bina town, on 31st May 1958. At present all these three *Neera* Vends are functioning in the district.

ADVANCEMENT OF BACKWARD CLASSES AND TRIBES

Prior to 1950 the classification of Scheduled Castes and Tribes was governed by the Government of India (Scheduled Castes) Orders, 1936, and the Thirteenth Schedule to the Government of India (Provincial Legislative Assemblies) Order, 1936. The tribes classified were then termed as Backward Tribes.

The following Table shows tahsil-wise population of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the year 1941 : –

Tahsil	Scheduled Castes			Scheduled Tribes		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Sagar District (Total) ..	75,362	74,484	1,49,846	19,903	19,977	39,880
1. Sagar Tahsil	28,357	28,204	56,561	3,654	3,654	7,308
2. Rehli Tahsil	15,620	15,588	31,208	10,972	10,923	21,895
3. Khurai Tahsil	20,277	19,944	40,221	435	475	910
4. Banda Tahsil	11,108	10,784	21,856	4,842	4,925	9,767

Source.—Census of India 1941, Vol. VIII, C. P. and Berar.

NOTE.—District figures are exclusive of Damoh Sub-Division.

On the declaration of Scheduled Areas by the Presidential Order of 1950, Sagar district did not fall in that category. Hence, in the 1951 Census, the population of Scheduled Tribes in the district has not been recorded. According to the projected figures submitted by the Registrar General of Census Operations to the Delimitation Commission, 1956 under section 42 of the States Re-organisation Act, 1956, the tahsil-wise distribution of the population of Scheduled Castes in the district was as under :—

District/Tahsil	Scheduled Castes
(1)	(2)
Sagar District (Total) ..	1,36,545
Sagar Tahsil .. .	47,049
Khurai Tahsil	38,493
Rehli Tahsil	27,979
Banda Tahsil	23,024

It is evident that there has been a decrease in the population classified as Scheduled Castes in the district. The decrease was mostly due to exclusion of a few castes such as Gond, Dhobi, Khatik, Kumbhar, Mala and Panka, who had been formerly classified as Scheduled Castes, but were excluded in 1950 from the list of Scheduled Castes in view of their social circumstances.

Another important change that was brought about in 1950 was that while the Thirteenth Schedule to the Government of India (Legislative Assemblies) Order, 1936, did not specify any areas as Scheduled Areas, the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950 indicated in the Schedule appended to the Order, certain specified areas, and the listed tribes, could be regarded as Scheduled Tribes if they lived in these Scheduled Areas.

Apart from the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, the State Government also prepared a provincial list of 59 Backward Classes.[1] The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes residing outside the areas specified in the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950 and the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950, respectively, were deemed to be Backward Classes for the purposes of the provincial list.

The percentage of Backward Classes (including Scheduled Castes, non-Scheduled Tribes and "Others") to the total population of the district including Damoh Sub-Division ranged between 40 per cent and 50 per cent, whereas the percentage of Backward Classes (excluding Scheduled Castes, and non-Scheduled Tribes) to the total district population was less than 10 per cent.

According to the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Modification Order, 1956, following is the list of Scheduled Castes so far declared as such in the district:—

(1) Bahna or Bhana, (2) Balahi or Balai, (3) Basor, Burud, Bansor or Bansodi, (4) Chamar, Chamari, Mochi, Nona, Rohidas, Ramnami, Satnami, Surjyabanshi or Surjyaramnami, (5) Dom or Dumar, (6) Ganda or Gandi, (7) Khatik, Chikwa or Chikvi, (8) Mang, Dankani-Mang, Mang-Mahashi, Mang-Garudi, Madari, Garudi or Radhe-Mang, (9) Mehtar or Bhangi, (10) Sansi, (11) Chadar, (12) Dhanuk, (13) Katia or Patharia, (14) Khangar, Kanera or Mirdha, (15) Kori, (16) Mahar or Mehra.

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1. Replies to the questionnaire issued by the Backward Classes Commission, Government of Madhya Pradesh, p. 71.

Welfare Schemes

One of the important sector of welfare programme for the Backward Classes concerns education. Towards the close of the last century the tendency in this respect was to establish separate schools for Harijans under Harijan school-masters. Three such schools were opened at Sagar in 1891. The policy was, however, subsequently given up, and Harijans were admitted freely in all schools under public management. The Education Manual was suitably amended in 1922-23 to prevent any discriminatory treatment of students belonging to the Scheduled Castes. Several Schemes such as opening of primary schools in Backward Areas, were brought into force in 1938-39, and the Government sanctioned a matching grant of Rs 600 per district on condition that the district collected Rs 300 locally for educational facilities for Harijans. Apart from these steps, the following measures were taken for the encouragement of education among the Backward Classes in the district:—

(a) equal treatment socially, in all Government schools and college, without any distinction of caste;

(b) free tuition in all Government schools and colleges;

(c) special scholarships made available to students of Backward Classes and Aboriginals; and

(d) the reservation of seats in the Normal School up to four per cent of the total number enrolled

The ameliorative measures for the benefit of Backward Classes were expanded on a larger scale after 1947, in the form of opening more schools, and hostels, grant of scholarships and stipends, free lodging, clothing and books, etc. The following Table shows the value of stipends given to students of Backward Classes and to Harijan students by the District Inspector of Schools, Sagar :—

Year	Backward Classes		Harijans	
	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1951-52	1	36.00	3	130.75
1952-53	1	36.00	4	149.75
1953-54	2	212.31	6	647.00
1954-55	1	142.37	4	497.69

1			2	3	4	5
1955-56	..	..	2	237.00	3	357.69
1956-57	..	..	4	487.44	9	901.50
1957-58	..	..	5	654.82	10	1203.21
1958-59	..	..	7	984.89	8	1038.91
1959-60	..	..	8	1084.66	3	253.20
1960-61	..	..	5	682.00	3	353.34
Total	..	..	36	4557.49	53	5533.04

The Directorate of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh has given scholarships to Scheduled Castes, Backward Classes and Scheduled Tribes trainees in Normal School at Sagar as shown below : —

Year		Backward Classes		Scheduled Castes		Scheduled Tribes	
		No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1956-57	..	..	..	9	1,234	..	—
1957-58	..	6	912	23	3,742	6	1,372
1958-59	..	9	1,262	25	3,662	10	2,418
1959-60	..	7	1,048	25	4,713	8	1,504
1960-61	..	6	951	25	4,545	7	3,800
Total	..	28	4,173	107	17,896	31	9,094

The following Table shows the number of Harijan students and the amount distributed to them by way of scholarships in the district by the Directorate of Social Welfare and Panchayats, Government of Madhya Pradesh : —

Year	No. of students		No. of Hostellers	Rs.
1958-59	17	..	2	2572.26
1959-60	13	..	2	3643.64
1960-61	13	..	2	2685.30
Total	43		6	8901.20

In addition to the above, the Government of India instituted a scheme for grant of scholarships to the Scheduled Castes in 1944-45. This benefit was extended to the Scheduled Tribes in 1948-49 and other Backward Classes in 1949-50. The scheme has been decentralised with effect from 1959-60. Under this centrally sponsored scheme, allotments are placed at the disposal of the Commissioners of Divisions by the Directorate of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, for award of post-matric scholarships to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes students. The following Table shows the number of students and the amount allotted on this account in the district :—

Year	Scheduled Castes		Scheduled Tribes	
	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1960-61	35	14,853	1	291
1961-62	38	17,978	1	743
TOTAL ..	73	32,831	2	1,034

Year	Other backward classes		Total	
	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.
(1)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1960-61	66	31,904	102	47,043
1961-62	42	22,788	81	41,509
TOTAL ..	108	54,692	183	88,557

Harijan Balwadi.—In order to educate Harijan children on the lines of the Montessori system, three Balawadis have been established at Bina, Hirapur and Tada under the supervision of the Collector of the district during Second Five-Year Plan. The children attending Balwadis are being looked after by women teachers appointed at each place for this purpose. The children have been supplied with clothes, and light refreshment is also given to them daily at these Balawadis. The following Table shows the amount spent on these three Balawadis during last four years :—

Year	Rs.
(1)	(2)
1957-58	3,115
1958-59	5,576
1959-60	7,462
1960-61	5,594
TOTAL ..	21,747

Training Centres.—At Sagar, a Training-cum- Common Facility Centre in footwear was established on 2nd February 1959. In the first two batches 17 trainees were trained and 6 were under training

in the third batch. A stipend of Rs. 25 is given to each trainee every month.

Another Training-*cum*-Production Centre in leather goods was established at Khurai on 2nd March 1959 and a cottage industries Instructor and a semi-skilled clicker have been provided in the Centre. A stipend of Rs. 30 per month is given to each trainee. In the first two batches 19 trainees were trained and seven were under training in the third batch.

Middle Schools, Primary Schools and Hostels:—Madhya Pradesh Vanavasi Seva Mandal with its headquarters at Mandla has been working in the district for the welfare and advancement of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes, with a hundred per cent grants-in-aid by the State Government. Under the First Five-Year Plan in Rehli tahsil, the *Mandal* started a residential middle school at village Kesli and five primary schools at villages Gutori-Pana, Putarra-Dungaria, Putarra-Tada, Ghat-Kheri and Jhamara.

During the Second Five-Year Plan, in Banda tahsil, six primary schools at villages Khajra-Bineka, Patheria-Gond, Jharia-Bamori, Chakeri-Bineka, Sevada and Tagia and one middle school and a hostel in village Khajra-Baneka have been started. On 30th September 1961, there were on roll 101 boys and 46 girls of Scheduled Tribes; 11 boys and one girl of Scheduled Castes and 107 boys and 18 girls of others in the six primary schools referred to above and nine boys of Scheduled Tribes, three boys of Scheduled Castes and nine boys of others in the middle school Khajra-Bineka. Besides these, there were 30 boys of Scheduled Tribes in the Hostel at village Kesli and six boys of Scheduled Tribes and three boys of Scheduled Castes in the hostel at Khajra-Bineka.

Gandhi Prarthana Mandir.—In the year 1955-56, four Gandhi Prarthana Mandirs, one each at village Besara, Deorikala, Dalpatur and Bhaisa, were established under the auspices of Zila Harijan Seva Sangh, Sagar. The State Government had given Rs. 1,000 at the rate of Rs. 250 per Mandir by way of grants-in-aid to the Sangh.

Health and Rural Sanitation.—In respect of better health and sanitation for the Backward Classes during the First Five Year Plan, seven centres for the free distribution of medicines were started by the Madhya Pradesh Vanavasi Seva Mandal on hundred per cent grants-in-aid by State Government—two at village Kesli, (one at village proper and one in students' hostel) and one each at Putarri-Tada, Putarri-Dungaria, Ghat-Kheri, Guhori-Pana and Jhamara. In addition to these, during Second Five-Year Plan eight more such centres were started, two at village Bineka (one at village proper

and one in students' hostel) and one each at Sevada, Tagia. Khajra, Patheria, Jharai, Bamori, and Chakeri-Bineka.

In the year 1955-56 the State Government had given Rs. 2,000 to Zila Harijan Seva Sangh, Sagar by way of grants-in-aid for the construction of six drinking water wells. Two of these wells were constructed, one each at Banda and Mandari, and the remaining four wells were constructed, one each at Rasena, Maharajpur, Karahad, and Dewal-Chori.

Under the Centrally sponsored scheme, 30 drinking water wells have been constructed in villages of the district where there is a concentration of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The following Table shows the number of wells, amount spent, etc., during the last four years:—

Year	No. of wells constructed	Rs.	Location of wells
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1957-58 ..	1	2,000	At village Golni.
1958-59 ..	7	13,974	At villages Basa, Sawal-Khiria, Surkh Balch, Padaria, Khadesara and Tinsua.
1959-60 ..	9	18,000	At villages Banda, Lakhan-Khera, Renguan-Dhansara, Hadkal-Khati, Salwara, Tumeri, Bilara and Patharia-Jat.
1960-61 ..	13	26,000	At villages Berkheri, Kirroda, Khair, Hinota, Madkera, Hindoria, Ratanpura Ranipur, Karrapur, Bemura, Bhai Chandamau and Saikhera.
TOTAL ..	30	59,974	

Economic Opportunities

In the economic sphere the Backward Area Welfare Scheme envisaged the establishment of multipurpose co-operative societies, each of which covered some 15 to 20 villages. Four such societies were organised in the district, one each at villages Ghana, Toda, Sahajpur and Bina. Of these, first two were registered on 1st September 1947 and the latter two on 9th April 1948 and 3rd October 1948, respectively. On 27th October 1959, the Sagar Charmakars Industrial Co-operative Society, Ltd., Sagar and on 30th December 1959, the Ambedkar Charmkars Udyog Shoe Makers' Co-operative Society, Ltd., Sagar were registered for the economic advancement of Scheduled Castes.

Three model colonies, one each at village Basari (Khurai tahsil), Banda and Mohli (Banda tahsil) have been set up in the district during the year 1958-59, where 10, 8 and 15 families of Scheduled Castes, respectively, have been settled.

In addition to these, under the Centrally sponsored Scheme in respect of better housing for Scheduled Castes, 75 houses have been constructed during the last four years for which grants were given at the rate of Rs. 750 per house, as shown in the Table below:—

Year	Rs.	No. of houses constructed	Location of houses
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1957-58 ..	2,250	3	Village Renguan in Khurai Tahsil.
1958-59 ..	24,500	33	Villages Basari, Mohli and Banda under model colony scheme referred to above.
1959-60 ..	18,750	25	At village Karrapur 18, at Darriya 5, and 2 at Khairana.
1960-61 ..	11,450	14	At Mohli 6 and 8 at Pyasi.
TOTAL ..	56,950	75	

Voluntary Agencies

Voluntary efforts for eradication of untouchability and uplift of Harijans started in an organized way in 1932 when the Harijan Sewak Sangh, Sagar, was established. Later in 1952, it was renamed as Zila Harijan Seva Sangh and was affiliated to Akhil Bhartiya Harijan Sewak Sangh, Delhi. It receives grants-in-aid from the Government and the Janapada Sabha.

The other organisations which are engaged in this work in the district are the Kabir Samaj, Sagar, and the Madhya Pradesh Vanavasi Seva Mandal with its headquarters at Mandla. Under the Third Five Year Plan, the provision made for the advancement of Scheduled Castes in the State Plan for the district is given in the Table below:—

(Rs. in lakhs)

S. No.	Name of Scheme	Five Year Provision 1961-66	Five year Targets 1961-66
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
		Rs.	
1	Agricultural Subsidies . ..	0.60	120 Families.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
2	Training-*cum*-Production Centre.	5.81	1 Centre.
3	Drinking Water Wells ..	0.98	19 Wells.
4	Community Centres	0.52	1 Community Centre
5	Sanskar Kendras	..	1 Sanskar Kendra.
	Total	7.31	..

This provision is in addition to the other schemes in the Plan which are of a State-wide nature and cannot be reduced in terms of the district.

Under the Centrally sponsored Schemes which cannot be broken down in terms of district plans for the welfare of Scheduled tribes, include special multipurpose blocks, credit facilities due to enforcement of debt relief regulation, organisation of research teams, extension of tribal workers training institute, preservation of tribal culture, preparation of text books, examination in tribal dialects and scheme for research in the matters of interest of the tribals. The Schemes for the Scheduled Castes include housing for scavengers and sweepers, house sites for Scheduled Castes engaged in unclean occupation and improvement of the working condition of sweepers and scavengers.

PUBLIC TRUSTS AND CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS.

There are several public trusts established in the district, the majority of which are intended for religious and educational purposes. As on the 6th January 1962, there were 565 registered public trusts in the district. The following Table shows tahsil-wise number and nature of public trusts in the district:—

S. No.	Nature of Public Trust	No. in Sagar Tahsil	No. in Khurai Tahsil	No. in Rehli Tahsil	No. in Banda Tahsil	Total in the district
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	Purely Religious	206	120	114	56	496
2	Educational	23	3	2	..	28
3	Rendering of other Social services	16	1	..	..	17
4	Partly Religious and partly Charitable.	14	..	..	..	14

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
5	Running of *Dharmshalas* etc. ..	5	3	1	..	9
6	Medical	..	1	..	..	1
	Total	264	128	117	56	565

Most of these trusts are of small value, and only 116 trusts have an annual income of more than rupees one thousand. Some of the important public trusts of the district which deserve mention, are the following: —

(1) Jama Masjid Trust, Katra Bazar, Sagar.—One of the oldest Trusts in the district is the Jama Masjid Trust whose records go back to 1861. The Trust was formed to look after the management of the Jama Mosque, and the first committee of four persons was formed on the 15th October, 1884. It was registered under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act of 1951, on 30th September, 1954. The main object of this Trust is to propagate religion and religious education among the Muslims of the town.

A "Quiamgah" (rest house) was constructed by the Trust Committee in 1956 with a total cost of Rs. 90,660.78. In 1948, the Jama Masjid Trust took over the management of the Madarsa Jami-ul-uloom which had been established by the Tanzim Committee, Sagar in 1925.

The Trust also gives grants-in-aid to the following institutions:—

(a) Urdu Primary School, Machhriyahi, Sagar,

(b) Urdu Primary Girls School, Sadar, Sagar,

(c) Azad Higher Secondary School, Sagar,

(d) Urdu Library, Sagar and

(e) Anjuman Tarakki-i-Urdu, Sagar.

At the time of its registration, there was movable property worth Rs 1,30,744.36 and immovable property worth Rs. 96,107.47 with the trust.

On 6th January 1961, the amount of investment to its credit was to the tune of Rs. 1,07,428.37.

(2) Shri Deo Radha Madho Lalji (Gedaji) Trust, Sagar:—This Trust was established by Shri Narayandas, son of Banshidhar Geda of Nariyaoli Naka, Sagar by his last will dated 18th April 1896, bequeathing almost all his estate valued at Rs. 50,606 to the deity, directing under the will that a temple be constructed and the deity be installed. The temple was accordingly constructed and the deity was installed in the year 1897. This Trust is managed by a committee and was registered under the M. P. Public Trusts Act, 1951 on the 22nd July 1954. There was movable property valued Rs. 1,30,744 and 86 paise and immovable property valued Rs. 96,107 and 47 paise with the Trust at the time of its registration. On January 6th, 1961 the amount of investment to its credit was of Rs. 5,37,889 and 57 paise.

3. Shri Ganesh Digambar Jain Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, Sagar.—The Trust was established by the Jains of Sagar in the year 1905. On 14th July 1954, it was registered under the M. P. Public Trusts Act 1951. The aim of the institution is to impart education in Sanskrit language specially in Grammar, Nyaya, literature and to specialise in Jain religious philosophy. It has established a library called Saraswati Bhawan which contains the old Jain religious books and many rare manuscripts in Pali, Prakrit and Sanskrit.

The institution possessed immovable property worth Rs. 1,39,000 and movable property of Rs. 1,01,800 at the time of its registration. On January 6th, 1961 the amount of investment to its credit was to the tune of Rs. 1,40,804 and 4 paise.

4.. Saraswati Vachanalaya Trust, Sagar.—This public Trust was established by the citizens of Sagar in the year 1914, with the object of propagating Hindi and to run a library as well as a reading-room. This institution became an important centre of public life and political activity. It was registered on 21st July 1954 under the

Madhya Pradesh Public Trust Act, 1951. There was a movable property worth Rs. 1,762 and 61 paise and immovable property worth Rs. 1,00,000 at the time of its registration. On January 6th, 1961 the amount of investment to its credit was to the tune of Rs. 1,16,761 and 3 paise.

5. **Shri Parshvanatha Jain Gurukul, Khurai.**—This Trust was established on 25th April 1944 by raising donations from Jain community of Khurai tahsil. The objects of the Trust are to arrange for the literary, social, physical and religious education of the children of Digambar Jain community. At the time of its registration under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act, 1951, the movable property of the trust was about Rs.10,16,689 and the immovable property was about Rs. 1,05,000.

Charitable Endowments

The Charitable Endowments Act of 1890, is applicable to the trusts of this district, and all funds are vested with the State Treasurer of Charitable Endowments. In the district, there are only nine charitable endowments. The aims and objects of all of which are educational. The Collector, Sagar, is the Administrator for five charitable endowments while the District Inspector of Schools is for two. The following is a list of the endowments and their initial value :—

Name of the Endowments	Value	Administering Authority	Year of endowment
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Rs.		
1. Wiggin's Scholarships Trust Fund	800	Collector, Sagar ..	1893
2. Mohanlal Coronation Scholarship Fund.	2,200	District Inspector of Schools, Sagar.	1913
3. Biharilal Hindi Scholarship Fund	400	Collector, Sagar ..	1913
4. Saraswatibai Scholarship Fund ..	1,400	Collector, Sagar ..	1915
5. Chhattra Silver Medal Fund ..	300	Collector, Sagar ..	1920
6. Janakibai Scholarship Fund ..	2,500	Collector, Sagar ..	1927
7. Dhuneewala Dada Scholarship Fund.	2,100	District Inspector of Schools, Sagar.	1951

GOVERNMENT GRANTS TO RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONS

Under the C. P. and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act 1948, 36 religious institutions (35 temples and one Masjid and Dargah) receive annual money grants to the tune of Rs. 8,454 for the maintenance, upkeep and performance of religious rites and festivals.

CHAPTER XVI

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Representation in Union Legislature

It was only after the delimitation of the constituencies after 1950 that the Sagar district formed a substantial part of a parliamentary constituency. Before that, from 1909 to 1913 the entire Central Provinces had only two members to reperesent it in the Imperial Council, and of these one was elected by the District Councils and the Municipalities of the Province, and the other by the land-holders. Sagar district sent three representatives—two from the Municipal Committee and one from the District Council to 'the electoral college to choose the former and 5 representatives to the land-holders' electorate to choose the latter. On the establishment of a Legislative Council for the Province in 1914, the seat assigned to the District Councils and Municipalities was replaced by a seat to be filled by election by the non-official members of the Legislative Council. This arrangement continued till 1920 when the Province returned one member to the Council of State and five members to the Indian Legislative Assembly. Sagar district did not form a constituency for electing a representative, but formed a part of the wider constituencies to elect representatives to the Council of State and the Indian Legislative Assembly. When the Government of India Act, 1935, came into force, this position remained much the same In 1946, soon after the election of a new Indian Legislative Assembly, elections to the Constituent Assembly were held in which out of 17 members elected from this province one happened to belong to Sagar district. Subsequently, when the Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly elected 17 Members to the Provisional Parliament one member came from Sagar district

This position continued until the general elections of 1951-52 when Sagar district was covered under the single-member Sagar Constituency, for the Lok Sabha. In 1957, however, following the recommendations of the Delimitation Commission, only a double member Constituency was retained for Sagar, and its area covered

not only the districts of Sagar and Damoh, but parts of Guna, Raisen and Jabalpur districts as well, as shown in the table below :—

1951-1952

Serial Number and Name of Constituency.	Extent of Constituency	Total No. of seats	Seats reserved for Scheduled Castes.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Sagar	Sagar district (excluding Damoh tahsil but including Patharia R. I. C.).	1	..
Total ..	..	1	..

1957

Serial Number and Name of Constituency.	Extent of Constituency	Total No. of seats.	Seats reserved for Scheduled Castes.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1. Sagar	Entire districts of Sagar and Damoh; and Mungaoli pargana of Guna district; Begumganj, and Udaipura tahsils; Girdawar circle No. III in Silwani tahsil of Raisen district; and Patan tahsil, Bahoriband R. I. C. and Patwari circles Nos. 24 to 28 in Majholi R. I. C. in Sihora tahsil and Rithi R. I. C., and Murwara municipality and Patwari circles Nos. 45 to 50 in Murwara R. I. C. in Murwara tahsil of Jabalpur district.	2	1
Total ..	..	2	1

The double-member constituency has been abolished in 1961 and instead two single-member constituencies have been created *viz.*, Sagar and Damoh, the latter seat being a reserved seat for Scheduled Castes.

Representation in State Legislature

It was only in November 1913 that the territories administered by the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces were by Pro-

dominions declared to be a Province to which the provisions of the Indian Councils Acts were made applicable. Regulations for the nomination and election of members were issued by the Governor-General-in-Council on the 15th November, 1913, and the Central Provinces Legislative Council was established in 1914, the first meeting of which was held on the 17th August, 1914. Seven members of this Council were elected by the Municipal Committees, District Councils and land-holders in the Province, while 17 members were nominated by the Chief Commissioner.

Thus Sagar district as a unit did not find representation in this Council. The position, however, changed when the Government of India Act, 1919 was inaugurated in the Province on December 17th, 1920. The strength of the Reformed Legislative Council, which came into existence in January, 1921 was 70 including 56 elected members, 17 nominated as the result of elections held in Berar, and 6 nominated to represent various interests.

As far as Sagar District was concerned the representation of the district in the Legislative Council from January, 1921 to March, 1937 was :—

Name of Constituency	Class of Constituency	Extent of Constituency *	Number of members
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Jubbulpore Division (Urban).	Non-Muhammadan Urban	The Municipalities of Murwara, Damoh, Saugor, Seoni and Mandla and the cantonment and railway settlement of Saugor.	
2. Saugor District	Non-Muhammadan Rural.	The district of Saugor.	
3. Jubbulpore Division.	Munhammadan Rural.	The division of Jubbulpore excluding the Mandla district except the Mandla Municipality.	
4. Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Land-holders.	..	.. The Jubbulpore and Nerbudda divisions excluding the Mandla district except the Mandla Municipality.	

*With the creation of a constituency for Mandla district in 1926, change occurred in the extent of the constituencies.

It may be mentioned in this connection that women became eligible for membership of the Legislative Council from the year 1926.

When the Government of India Act, 1935, came into force and the elections were held in 1937, the number of seats in the C. P. and Berar Legislative Assembly was 112. Under the new Act, the system of nomination was done away with and the members were directly elected. Out of these, 84 were general seats including 20 reserved for Scheduled Castes, one seat for representative of backward areas and tribes, 14 for Muhammadans; 1 for Anglo-Indians; 1 for Europeans; 2 for representatives of Commerce, Industry, Mining and Planting; 3 for land-holders; 1 for University, 2 for representatives of Labour and 3 for women. In so far as Sagar district was concerned, the representation in the Legislative Assembly, of Central Provinces and Berar was :—

Name of constituency	Class of constituency.	Extent of constituency	No. of seats	Scheduled Castes seats.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Jubbulpore-Saugor Seoni.	Urban-General	The Murwara, Saugor, Damoh, Bina-Etawah, Mandla and Seoni Municipalities, the Saugor cantonment, and the railway settlements at Bina and Seoni.	1	..
2. Saugor-Khurai	Rural-General	The Saugor and Khurai Tahsils, excluding the areas included in Urban constituency.	2	1
3. Rehli-Banda ..	Rural-General	The Rehli and Banda Tahsils.	1	..
4. Saugor-Narsinghpur.	Muhammadan-Rural.	The whole of the Saugor district and tahsils of Damoh, Hatta and Narsinghpur.	1	..

The legislature elected in 1937 remained dormant after the resignation of the Ministry in 1939 and was finally dissolved on the 3rd September 1945 and fresh general elections were ordered in that year and completed in April 1946.

This position continued until the general elections of 1951-52 when the district was covered by six constituencies with two double-member constituencies. In the elections of 1957 some changes were made which affected the size of constituencies and their number which came to six including one double-member constituency. The names, extent, and other particulars of these

constituencies during the elections of 1951-52 and 1957 are given in the table below :—

1951-52

Serial No. and Name of constituency.		Extent of constituency	Total No. of seats.	Seats reserved for Scheduled Castes.
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Khurai	..	Khurai tahsil and Nariaoli R. I. C. of Sagar tahsil.	2	1
2. Sagar	..	Pamakhedi R. I. C. of Sagar tahsil	1	..
3. Surkhi	..	Jaisinagar, Rahatgarh and Surkhi R. I. Cs. of Sagar tahsil.	1	..
4. Banda	..	Banda	1	..
5. Rehli	..	Rehli tahsil, excluding Garhakota R. I. C.	1	..
6. Hatta	..	Hatta tahsil Garhakota R. I. C. of Rehli tahsil and Pathariya R. I. C. of Damoh tahsil.	2	1
Total	..	..	8	2

1957

Serial No. and Name of constituency.		Extent of constituency	Total No. of seats.	Seats reserved for Scheduled Castes.
(5)		(6)	(7)	(8)
1. Khurai	..	Khurai tahsil; and Nariaoli R. I. C. in Sagar tahsil.	2	1
2. Sagar	..	Sagar Municipality, Sagar cantonment and Military area, in Sagar R. I. C. in Sagar tahsil.	1	..
3. Surkhi	..	Surkhi, Jaisinagar and Rahatgarh R. I. Cs. and Sagar R. I. C. (excluding Sagar Municipality, Sagar cantonment and Military area).	1	..
4. Banda	..	Banda tahsil	1	..
5. Rehli	..	Garhakota and Rehli R. I. Cs. in Rehli tahsil and Parsoria R. I. C.	1	..
6. Deori	..	Rehli tahsil (excluding Garhakota and Rehli R. I. Cs.).	1	..
		Total	7	1

Following the splitting up of all double-member constituencies in the country by the Election Commission, the double-member constituency of Khurai has been abolished and replaced by two single-member constituencies *viz.*, Bina and Khurai, the former comprising Bina, Bhangarh and Barodia Revenue Inspector Circles in Khurai tahsil, and the latter comprising Khurai and Banda Revenue Inspector Circles in Khurai tahsil and Nariaoli Revenue Inspector Circle in Sagar tahsil. Khurai is a reserved seat for Scheduled Castes. So much about the representation of the district in the State Legislature.

POLITICAL PARTIES AND ORGANISATIONS

The political parties, as we know them today, were non-existent before the dawn of the present century. The uprising of 1857 threw every thing into confusion, and its failure was followed by a total suppression of any political activity in this turbulent tract. It could well be imagined that the mood of the rulers in the years following the uprising would not permit any incipient public movement taking shape. The earliest forum of public opinion in Sagar was the Hit Sabha, an organisation devoted to the furtherance of educational activities. Established in 1874, it consisted of the educated and cultured persons belonging to the middle class upon which had fallen the mantle of leadership after the collapse of the feudal aristocracy in the 1857 uprising It started a Newspaper and Reading Club and press with a view to keeping people acquainted with the political and social developments in the country. It also served as a training ground for public men, and under its auspices several men of Sagar took to public life and came into prominence. In those dark years this association represented a pioneering effort in this direction. Though the Hit Sabha was a political and literary organisation, people felt the need for a more militant body which was supplied by the Sanatan Dharma Sabha in 1905. This organisation of public spirited men, held strong political views on the important public issues of the day. It was, however, not till May, 1907, that the foundations of public life were laid firm and secure. That year Dada Saheb Khaparde and Dr. Munje paid a visit to Sagar and helped the local people in organising a branch of the Nationalist wing of the Indian National Congress. After this a number of political associations sprang up. In 1912 was established the Surya Vijaya Akhara, which was, more or less, a part of the Congress Party. Three years later, a 'Voters Association' was formed to agitate for the much-needed Municipal reforms. The following year, 1916, saw the formation of a branch of the Home Rule League at Sagar. Still later, in 1918 was established the Sewa Samiti, which served as a recruitment ground for political workers.

Here it would be interesting to speak of an episode which at that time aroused great interest. It related to a clash that occurred in 1919 between the growing political organizations at Sagar and the local authorities. The Government decided to open a chain of slaughter houses at various places in the district. This roused a country-wide agitation. The people organised themselves into an association, called the 'Gau Badh Niwaran Sabha' in order to protest against this iniquitous action. The agitation soon spread and gained amazing popularity. It got support from nationalist leaders like Lajpat Rai, who wrote several articles in the contemporary newspaper, *Bande mataram* The movement lasted for a brief period, but the success it brought to the people was unique in those days. So far as public life was concerned, this incident was important from two points. Firstly it demonstrated that organised agitation is the most effective means to gain public ends and thus gave people their cue for the new phase of freedom struggle. Secondly, the success it achieved gave an impetus to the further growth of political organisations in the district.

All these agitational activities, besides fanning the general discontent. gave strength to the Congress party which grew in stature year after year. Its workers began to mobilise the public opinion by organising political conferences. One such conference was held in 1919 with Dr. Munje as the chairman. Two years later, in November, 1921, the newly-formed Hindi C. P. Provincial Congress Committee met at Sagar under the Chairmanship of Dr. Raghavendra Rao. Following closely upon the Nagpur Session of the Indian National Congress the conference endorsed the programme of *Satyagraha.*

In 1923, when the centre of Flag Satyagraha was shifted from Jabalpur to Nagpur, the District Congress Committee Sagar adopted a resolution for sending volunteers to take part in the struggle and a batch of *Satyagrahis* was sent from Sagar. The elections to the second Legislative Council of the Province were held in 1924, and a candidate of the Congress Swaraj Party was elected from the Sagar District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency. Another candidate of this party who belonged to Sagar was elected to the Indian Legislative Assembly from the Central Provinces Hindi Division (Non-Muhammadan) Constituency. For the third Central Provinces Legislative Council (January 1927 to August 1930). one candidate of the Congress Party was elected from Jabalpur Division (Non-Muhammadan) Urban Constituency and the other was elected from the Sagar District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.

At this time the extremist group made some head-way in this region, and a revolutionary party called the Hindustan Socialist Republican Army, began its activities. One Ramlal Telang, an approver in the Delhi-Punjab Conspiracy of 1930-31, later disclosed that the Sagar terrorists were given some arms and ammunition to practise shooting. With the opening of a Khadi Ashram at Anantpura in Sagar in 1929, it became the centre of political activity in the area. The Gandhi Sewa Sangh, which worked through the agency of the Khadi Ashram was engaged in the revival of hand-spinning and hand-weaving and in social service.

The years that followed were years of strife and stress. By about 1930, the Civil Disobedience Movement was launched in the country and this had its repurcussions in Sagar also. In response to the call of the Indian National Congress, the people came forward, lit bonfires of foreign clothes and picketted schools and liquor shops. Meetings were held in which local leaders indicted the Government vehemently. As a result of all this, the local authorities let loose a reign of repression. Promient leaders were arrested and given severe punishments. Public bodies, like the Municipality which had shown sympathy for the movement were denied regular grants. The Unlawful Association Ordinance (IV of 1932) was applied to Sagar district and the District Congress Committee was declared unlawful. The total number of convictions in connection with the Civil Disobedience Movement, which ended in 1933 in Sagar district, was 86 which included four women. With the suppression of the Civil Disobedience Movement, the agitational activities of the Congress Party were suspended in the district. In the 1937 elections to the C. P. and Berar Legislative Assembly members of the Congress Party were elected from four constituencies that covered Sagar district.

The next phase of the political movement in the district was a part of the 'Quit India' movement which swept through the whole country in 1942. The general feature of the movement followed the pattern of the all-India movement. The District and Nagar Committees of the Congress were declared unlawful. There were several acts of defiance of law, including the Forest Law, and these led to large-scale arrests and *lathi* charges at several places. There was police firing at Garhakota on the 22 August. The movement raged, with various ups and downs, till practically 1944, when along with the rest of the country, it was withdrawn in Sagar district.

In the 1946 elections to the Provincial Legislature the candidates belonging to the Congress Party were again elected from the four constituencies that covered the district. The district also had one

member in the quota of 17 members that was sent to the Constituent Assembly from the Province, and to the Provisional Parliament. In the first General Elections held under the Constitution in 1951-52, the party won the only seat allotted to the district for Lok Sabha, polling about 56 per cent of the total valid votes cast. In the Vidhan Sabha also the party captured all the eight seats, which included two reserved seats, polling about 53 per cent of the total votes cast and found valid in the district. In the 1957 elections when the district had two seats for the Lok Sabha, including one reserved seat, the party won both the seats; and similarly the party succeeded in winning all the seven seats for the Vidhan Sabha, polling about 50 per cent of the total valid votes cast in the election In the general elections of 1962 the party set up two candidates for Lok Sabha, one from Sagar Constituency and the other from the Damoh (Reserved) Constituency which over-lapped parts of Sagar district as well. Both the seats were won by the party, securing about 49 per cent of the valid votes in the former and about 42 per cent in the latter. For the State Vidhan Sabha the party contested all the seven seats and succeeded in winning four seats, securing about 38 per cent of the total valid votes polled.

Hindu Maha Sabha

Apart from the Congress Party, there were other organisations of all-India character which played an important role in the public life of the district. Among them one of the earliest was the Hindu Maha-Sabha. As early as in 1923 an association called Hindu Sabha was established at Sagar. Its origin was partly due to the dissatisfaction of the more orthodox sections of the Hindu Community with the policy of the Congress Party which to them was not adequately Hindu in its complexion. By July, 1939, the Sabha organised three volunteers associations at Sagar, *viz*., Hindu Troop, Sagar Cantonment, Paltan Maidan Troop, Sagar Cantonment and Charan Troop, Sagar Cantonment. A branch of the Hindu Sabha was also established at Rehli. In 1939, 'Adarsh Hindu Sewa Sangh' was established at Deori. Nevertheless, Hindu Sabha and its allied organisations did not call forth any appreciable support in the political life of the Sagar district as far as it is reflected in the elections. In the general elections of 1962, Hindu Maha Sabha set up a candidate in the Sagar constituency for the Lok Sabha and lost the seat having secured 5.49 per cent of the total number of valid votes polled. For the Vidhan Sabha, it set up four candidates, one each against Sagar, Khurai, Rehli and Bina constituency and lost all the seats.

Muslim League

We may trace the political activities of the Muslim Community in the district to a period soon after the establishment of Hindu Maha Sabha at Sagar when a quasi-political organisation with considerable influence, called the 'Tanzim Committee', was established at Sagar in 1925. In the year 1930, another association called the "Jamaitul-Quresh" or "Kasai Mandi Volunteer Corps" with the object of organising social service among Muslims in particular was established at Sagar. It was communally inclined. With some what similar objects the 'Nasirul Islam Rover Scout Troop' was established at Sagar Cantonment in 1931.

Soon after the formation of the Central Provinces and Berar Provincial Muslim League in October 1936, a branch of the Muslim League was established at Sagar in 1937 Later, its branches were also opened at Bina, Garhakota and Khurai. With the establishment of a branch of Muslim League at Sagar three Muslim Volunteers Organisations which were quasi-political in nature were organised under it, *viz.*, Kamal Troop, Sagar Cantonment, Muslim Troop A and B, Sagar Cantonment; and Muslim Troop A, Sagar Cantonment. For the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly, from Sagar-Narsinghpur Muhammadan Rural Constituency, a candidate of the Muslim League who belonged to Sagar was elected in the general elections of 1937 The next elections to the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly were completed in April 1946 and again a candidate of Muslim League who belonged to Sagar was elected from the Sagar-Narsinghapur Muhammdan Rural Constituency. The branch of the Muslim League ceased to exist in the district after 1947.

Socialist Party

The Socialist Party had previously worked with the Congress Party, but at the end of the year 1948, it set up separate party units in this area. The seat from Sagar-Narsimhpur Muhammadan Rural Constituency was declared vacant and in the bye election which was held during 1949-50, it set up a candidate and won the seat

In the first general elections of 1951-52, the Socialist Party, set up one candidate for the Lok Sabha for the only seat allotted to the district, but it could secure only 11 0 per cent of the total number of valid votes polled and lost the seat. For the Vidhan Sabha it set up four candidates, one each from Khurai, Sagar, Surkhi and Hatta constituencies but none of them was elected

Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party

In the year 1951, this all-India Political Party which had then come into existence contested elections for three of the Vidhan Sabha, viz., Khurai, Sagar and Banda constituencies but did not win any seat.

Praja Socialist Party

A branch of this all-India Political Party was established in the district after the first general elections by the merger of the Socialist Party and the Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party in 1952. In the general elections of 1957, the Praja Socialist Party set up one candidate belonging to the Scheduled Castes against the double-member constituency for Lok Sabha But it failed to win the seat. For the Legislative Assembly, out of seven seats in the district, it contested six seats, but did not win any of them.

In the general elections of 1962, the Praja Socialist Party set up a candidate in the Sagar Constituency for the Lok Sabha but lost the seat. For the Vidhan Sabha it contested five seats out of seven in the district and won one seat from the Deori Constituency having secured 26.62 per cent of the total number of valid votes polled.

Bharatiya Jan Sangh

A branch of this all-India Political Party was established in the district at Sagar in November 1951, soon after its inauguration was announced in October, 1951, at a convention in New Delhi. The Jan Sangh set up a candidate in the first general elections of 1951-52 for the Lok Sabha but did not win it. It also set up eight candidates for the State Legislature but failed to win any of them. The Party secured 15.36 per cent of the total valid votes polled in the district. In the general elections of 1957, it contested both the seats for the Lok Sabha, in the double-member Sagar Constituency, but lost both the seats. For the State Legislature, it set up six candidates but failed to win any seat.

In the general elections of 1962, the Jan Sangh set-up two candidates for Lok Sabha, one in Damoh (Reserved) Constituency and the other in the Sagar Constituency, but lost both the seats to the Congress. For the State Legislature it contested all the seven seats in the district and succeeded in winning two seats.

The following table shows the number of Lok Sabha and Vidhan Sabha seats under which Sagar district was covered, number of electors, total number of valid votes polled, number of contesting candidates, seats won and the number of valid votes polled by the Congress, Jan Sangh, Praja Socialist and other political parties including independents at the 1951-52, 1957 and 1962 General Elections :—

Legislature and Year of Election	(a) Number of Seats. (b) Number of Electors. (c) Total number of valid votes Polled	(a) Number of contesting candidates (b) Number of seats won (c) Number and percentage of valid votes polled by :— Congress	Jan Sangh	Praja Socialist	Others including independents
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Lok Sabha—					
1951–52					
(a)	1	1	1	..	3
(b)	3,96,406	1	..	..	..
(c)	1,57,375	87,689 (55.73%)	31,943 (20.30%)	..	37,743 (23.97%)
1957—					
(a)	2	2	2	1	..
(b)	7,52,447	2	..	..	..
(c)	5,64,508	3,40,547 (60.32%)	1,49,807 (26.54%)	74,154 (13.14%)	..
1962—					
(a)	2	2	2	1	3
(b)	8,48,146	2	..	..	..
(c)	3,76,327	1,70,097 (45.20%)	1,08,117 (28.73%)	26,053 (7.45%)	70,060 (18.62%)
Vidhan Sabha					
1951–52					
(a)	8	8	8	..	28
(b)	3,96,406	8	..	..	..
(c)	2,22,446	1,16,776 (52.50%)	34,159 (15.36%)	..	71,511 (32.14%)

1	2	3	4	5	6
1957—					
(a)	7	7	6	6	12
(b)	3,20,449	7	..	..	..
(c)	1,60,344	84,326 (49.80%)	16,215 (9.57%)	28,838 (17.03%)	39,965 (23.60%)
1962—					
(a)	7	7	7	5	11
(b)	3,66,499	4	2	1	..
(c) .. .. *	1,58,283	60,450 (38.19%)	54,099 (34.18%)	10,619 (6.71%)	33,115 (20.92%)

NEWSPAPERS

In a district like Sagar, where people were politically conscious and the growth of education was very rapid, journalism naturally had an early start commencing from 1893. The first monthly magazine was sponsored by Shri Narain Balkrishna Nakhare, who owned Olcott Press which was the second printing press in the district. *Vichar Wahan,* as this publication was called, was meant to propagate the ideology of the Theosophical Society. It had a brief life and its publication was stopped in 1895. The following year, 1896, saw the birth of *Vichar Vedant,* which hardly ran for a year. Two years later, in January, 1899, Shri Nakhare started another monthly magazine *Prabhat,* devoted to religious themes, but after a few years of precarious existence it ceased to exist.

With the stoppage of *Prabhat,* we find a hiatus in the growth of journalism till we come to 1920, when the *Gola Poora Jain,* a monthly magazine, started publication, primarily for the benefit of the Jain Community. It was followed by another monthly *Kesarwani Marg Darshak* in 1922, but both these were soon closed down. During the early period, local jouralism, generally concerned itself with religious, social and literary subjects. With the weekly magazine *Uday,* started in 1923, the trend changes and we find papers giving prominence to the live issues in political and social topics of the day. Its editor was, Shri Devendra Mukherji, an ardent nationalist, who also espoused the cause of education and the communal unity. The other newspaper

* Reports on the First, Second and Third General Elections in India, Vol. II, 1951-52, 1957 & 1962.

Dainik Prakash (June 1923) appeared under the editorship of Master Baldeo Prasad. The paper devoted itself to the events connected with the *Jhanda Satyagraha,* launched by the Congress Party at Nagpur. *Samalochak,* a weekly, edited by Bhai Abdul Ghani also advocated the theme of communal rapprochement in the country. Since all these publications were critical of the government activities, they had perforce to cease publication soon. During the quinquennial period, 1925-30, the note-worthy publications were *Bhragu* (monthly), *Ettehad,* and *Swadesh* (weekly). The first of these was sponsored by Bhargava Brahman Mahasabha. The following decade, 1930-40, saw three important periodicals namely, *Siddhi* (weekly), *Dehati Duniya* (weekly), and *Bachchon Ki Duniya* (fortnightly). The last of these was a children's magazine, edited by Master Baldeo Prasad. The *Dehati Duniya* ceased publication in 1942 and so did *Bachchon Ki Duniya.*

In the subsequent period (1947-61) only two dailies *Aaj-Ki-Baat* and *Bundelkhand* came into existence in 1952 and 1961, respectively. The *Jan-pukar,* which started as a tri-weekly in 1959, was subsequently being published as a daily.

Bi-weeklies

Only three bi-weeklies *Chingari, Halchal* and *Jai Mahabal* appeared, in 1947, 1953 and 1960, respectively. First two ventures, however, closed down after one or two initial issues.

Weeklies

During the same period the number of weeklies published in the district was 26. *Dehati Duniya* resumed publication in August 1947. *Vindhya Kesari,* started in 1947, and ended in November 1951. Another weekly, *Sipahi,* published in the same year lasted a little longer till November 1954. Thereafter, *Sammati* in 1948; *Khurafat, Bharatiya Sangeet* and *Nav Jawan* in 1949 and *Janata* in 1950, made their appearance. Of these *Khurafat* alone continued for more than two years. The names of weeklies published in the decennial period, 1950—60, are: *Hunter* and *Madari* in 1951; *Uttam* (1952); *Kartavyadan* (1953) and *Jan-pukar* (1954); *Dharti, Gurudev,* and *Sipahi* in 1956, *Sawadhan* in 1957; and *Rahi* in 1959. The succeeding year, witnessed 8 weeklies, *viz., New Rocket, Saptahik Janata, Saptahik Sagar Tarang, Saptakik Lalkar, Leader Naya Kadam, Jan-Kranti,* and *Naya Prakash.* Subsequently, the number of weeklies being published in the district was 13, their names being,

Dehati Duniya, Saptahik Hunter, Kartavyadan, Rahi, Janata, New Rocket, Sagar Tarang, Bundelkhand, Naya Kadam, Naya Prakash, Leader, Nirala and *Lalkar*. The last three weeklies were published from Khurai.

Fort-nightlies

Of the fort-nightlies, *Madhukamini* was started in 1953. Three years later *Prabhat* and *Vindhya Kesari* came into being. but none of them is now being published.

Monthlies

In all 15 monthlies were published in this period, viz., *Adarsh* (1948-50); *Jagriti* (1949); *Sat-Sang* (1950); *Be-lihaj, Chaurasia Sandesh, Karprakash,* and *Sathi* in 1951. *Chhatranidhi, Chitra Gupta Samachar, Madhukamini* and *Sandesh Turhi* in 1953; *Chandra Bansi Dhangar Chhatri Samachar* and *Nai-Subaha* in 1954; *Swadharma* in 1955 and *Janapada* in 1960. Of these, three magazines, viz., *Chhatranidhi, Chitragupta Samachar* and *Chandra Bansi Dhangar Chhatri Samachar* were devoted to a particular community or sect.

Among the all-India English newspapers the *Hindustan Times* (New Delhi), the *Indian Express* (Delhi), the *Free Press Journal* (Bombay), the *Times of India* (Bombay and Delhi), the *Sunday Standard* (Bombay), and *the Leader* (Allahabad) are widely read in the district. *The Hitavada* and *the Madhya Pradesh Chronicle* published from Bhopal, are the State English daily newspapers which have large circulation in the district.

As regards the Hindi newspapers the *Vir Arjuna* (Delhi), the *Hindustan Dainik* (Delhi), *the Nava Bharat Times* (Bombay and Delhi), and the *Bharat* (Allahabad) from outside the State and the *Nava Bharat* (Bhopal and Jabalpur), *the Dainik Jagaran* (Bhopal), *Bhaskar* (Bhopal), the *Nai Duniya* (Jabalpur), and the *Yug Dharma* (Jabalpur) of this State, cater to a wide Hindi reading public. Two Hindi weeklies, viz., the *Hindustan Saptahik* (Delhi) and the *Dharm Yug* (Bombay) are also quite popular in the district. The four dailies viz., the *Janma Bhumi* (Bombay) in Gujarati and *Pratap, Aljamiyat* and *Nai Duniya* (Delhi) in Urdu serve the needs of Gujarati and Urdu reading public, respectively.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations

There has been a fairly long tradition of voluntary social service organisations in Sagar district which have done significant work. Some of these did pioneering work in the latter part of the last century. Of these the oldest was the Hit Sabha which was established as a registered body in 1874. Apart from literary and political activities, the Hit Sabha also established two night

schools and two girls schools at Sagar. The Hit Sabha had three branches at Rehli, Khurai and Banda. Among the other notable Associations which did voluntary public service in the earlier period was the Sarwajanik Brahman Samaj. These four institutions have ceased to exist, but they had, during their existence, succeeded in stimulating voluntary social service in the district, and should be regarded as the fore-runner of the modern organisations. It may not be possible to deal with the activities of all these associations separately. The activities of some important ones have been described in this chapter.

1. Shri Sarwajanik Anathalaya, Sagar

The orphanage was started in 1907 with the idea of giving all-round training to orphaned and poor children to enable them to live a simple, self-reliant life. Orphans are admitted irrespective of considerations of caste, creed, sect, religion or birth. All inmates are given suitable education including some vocational training. The administration of orphanage is vested in the Working Committee. The Government is represented on the Committee of Management by four nominated members. The Anathashram has its own building, and its funds are mainly derived from donations, rent from property, and membership fee. It also receives grants from the Directorate of Panchayat and Social Welfare.

2. Shri Digambar Jain Mahila Ashram, Sagar

This organisation was started in 1939 by Shri Revaram Singhai, who gave a donation of Rs. 10,000 for the welfare of the women of Jain community. The Ashram runs a Middle School and prepares candidates for various examinations conducted by the Hindi Sahitya Sammelan. It also provides training in certain domestic crafts, such as sewing, garment making and spinning. There are two Committees—Trust Committee and Management Committee—which look after the affairs of the Ashram.

3. Sagar District Mahila Sangh

This is an important social welfare organisation established in 1930, having as its objective promotion of female and child education, free medical aid and other activities directed to the amelioration of the condition of women in the district. The Sangh has also endeavoured to raise the moral standard of the society by imparting religious education in Geeta Shala and Ramayan Mandal. It organised the Sagar District Women's Conference in 1947 and the Mahakoshal Provincial Women's Conference in 1951. The Mahila Sangh established a Girls Primary School called Gandhi Kanya Shala, a

Nursery School, called Jawahar Bal Sadan and the Kasturba Dharmarth Aushadhalaya where free Ayurvedic treatment is given. The sources of income are chiefly grants received from State Government and Local Bodies.

4. Mahila Samaj, Sagar

Started in 1936, this institution owns its inception to the late Smt. Yamuna Tai Thakur, a prominent social worker of Sagar district. It seeks to foster welfare of the women through various means. Cultural programmes are arranged by it to raise funds for the Mahila Vidyalaya. Sagar.

5. Mahila Kalakaushal Vidyalaya, Sagar

It was established in 1955 to impart instruction in weaving. tailoring, embroidery and other domestic crafts. It is a registered body and its management is entrusted to a Committee. In 1961, a branch of this Vidyalaya has been opened in the Sadar Bazar. It receives an annual grant from the Central Social Welfare Board, State Social Welfare Board and other local bodies.

6. Jila Harijan Seva Sangh, Sagar

This institution has grown out of the 'Harijan Sewak Sangh' started at Sagar in 1932. It is a registered body and is affiliated to the Akhil Bharatiya Harijan Sewak Sangh. Here useful work is carried on to eradicate untouchability and to create social consciousness among the neglected sections of the society. The media adopted is the organisation of cultural and literary programmes, lectures, social meets, etc. It also distributes money to the needy Harijans for the general betterment of their condition.

7. Arya Samaj, Sagar

The Arya Samaj, one of the oldest organisations in the city, was established on 21st January 1891, in order to propagate Vedic culture. It also aims at the eradication of social evils which have crept into Hindu society. It functions as the Sagar Branch of Arya Pratinidhi Sabha, Nagpur, and has branches at Bina, Rahatgarh. Khurai and Rehli. The Samaj has two units, namely, the main building a hall for religious purposes, and a library and reading-room which are open to the public. It conducts various examinations recognised by the Sarvadeshik Arya Pratinidhi Sabha, Delhi. A Vyayam Shala is also managed by it.

8. **Bharat Sewak Samaj, Sagar**

This organisation, with its branches at tahsil headquarters and 10 other places in the district has been working since 1955 in the district. The principal aim is to enlist public co-operation in the developmental activities through a chain of social service camps. A programme of social enlightenment is being carried on with the help of five subsidiary agencies, namely, Bharat Mahila Samaj, Sadhu Samaj, Vyas Samaj, Yuwak Samaj, and Sanskritic Sangh. So far the Bharat Sewak Samaj has organised 12 such camps which were attended by 660 persons. In 1957, the Samaj workers collected an amount of Rs. 4,560 and offered *Shramdan* for constructing a bund across the Machhariya-Nala at Sagar. It conducts a reading room in Sagar.

9. **Sarvodaya Pracharak Sangh, Bina**

With the object of popularising the philosophy of Sarvodaya in the society as whole, foundation of a classless society based on moral values, the District Sarvodaya Pracharak Sangh was established at Bina in 1953. Its income is derived from the fees collected from the members, donations and grants from the Government.

10. **Vidya Prasarini Sabha, Sagar**

Founded in 1934, it has as its objects the progress of education in the district. It has played a significant role in the sphere of education by opening a number of institutions in the district. The New English Middle School, started by the Sabha in 1934, is now working as a full-fledged Higher Secondary School known as the Chintamani Rao Model Higher Secondary School, Sagar. To it also goes the credit of making a pioneering effort to provide for collegiate education in Sagar, and a Hindu College was established in 1944. It, however, lasted only for three years. Later the Sabha opened Nanak Ram Devi Din Cantonment Middle School in 1951 and Vidya Prasarini High School in 1953, and both of these institutions are now under the management of the Cantonment Board, Sagar.

11. **Shri Nabhinandan Digambar Jain Hitopadeshi Sabha, Bina**

Started as early as 1918, the Sabha provides educational and medical facilities for the people of Bina. It also runs a Sanskrit school and maintains a *Dharmashala*. It is a registered body and derives its income form the rent receipts, donations, fees, etc.

12. **Bal Samaj, Sagar**

This institution was founded in 1868 by one Shri Padmakar Rao Master of Poona in order to foster a sense of patriotism among the youths. This he endeavoured to achieve by organising Ganesh Utsava, a popular festival in the pre—independence period. After his death Vishwas Rao, a prominent local social worker, carried over his legacy. The Bal Samaj celebrates national festivals, holds children's rallies and conducts cultural programme like dancing, music, debates, etc.

13. **Sagar Prasutika Griha, Sagar**

Established in November 1947, this maternity home is a registered body affiliated to the Sutika Griha, Nagpur. It was started with the laudable object of bringing improved medical facilities within the reach of low income group families. It began in a rented house with eight beds and a midwife, but now possesses a building of its own costing about Rs. 80,000 from grants by the State Government and donation from a few philanthropic persons of Sagar. It runs, besides a Meternity Home, a Shishu Kalyan Kendra, Midwife Training Centre, Family Planning Centre and an Out-door Dispensary for women and children only. The establishment is under the charge of a lady doctor. Its income is derived from public donations and grants-in-aid.

14. **Jain Bhratri Sangh, Sagar**

It was started in January 1940, as a branch of Jain Bhratri Sangh of Jabalpur to promote religious activities among the Jains. It runs a reading-room and library. A Swayam Sewak Dal has also been organised by it. It gives monetary help to promising poor students of the Jain Community. Being a sectarian organisation, its income is mainly derived from the private donations.

15. **Gujarati Samaj, Sagar**

Founded in October 1952, it seeks to promote economic, social and other interests of the Gujarati community. It runs a Bal Mandir where children are educated on Montessori system.

16. **Bharat Scouts and Guides Association, Sagar**

The Boy Scout movement had an early beginning in Sagar district, dating from 1919. The organisation is affiliated to the State Association, and has the Collector as its *ex-officio* president. It

maintains troops in schools at Sagar, Khurai, Bina, Rehli and Garhakota towns. In January 1962, the total membership was 1,110, out of which 280 were girl guides.

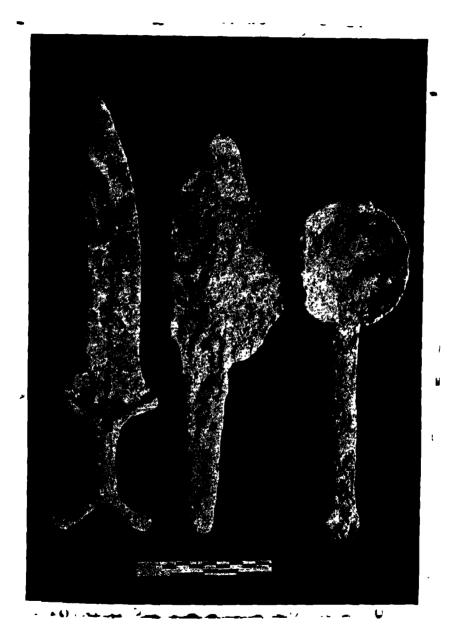
17. Shri Chhatrasal Vyayam Shala, Sagar

Previously known as Rampura Akhara, it assumed its present name in July 1922. It provides facilities for physical exercises. Mahatma Gandhi paid a visit to it in 1933. It is being managed by a trust and its financial resources include public contributions and Government grants.

18. Shri Shivaji Vyayam Shala, Sagar

Formerly known as Chakraghat Akhara. it assumed its present name in 1931. It arranges wrestling bouts from time to time.

19. Shri Jawahar Mahakoshal Prantiya Vyayam Pracharak Mandal, Sagar

Founded in 1948, it is a registered body and is affiliated to Madhya Pradesh Olympic Association. Like similar other associations, its income is derived from donations and grants-in-aid.

Iron objects from Eran.

Dhamoni and its neighbourhood. The latter came into clash with several local *Fauzdars*, namely, Khaliq, Rahullah Khan, Sadruddin, Afrasiyab Khan, Ikhlas Khan, Shamsher Khan, Khairandesh Khan and Lutfullah Khan, whose names are mentioned in contemporary records. After Chhatrasal's death it was bequeathed to his son Hirde Shah. About 1799 it was ceded to the Bhonslas by a Lodhi Rajput, who had taken it from the Bundelas. On 19th March 1818, Dhamoni was invested by Major General Marshall's forces which after facing a stubborn resistence, succeeded in reducing it. Sleeman, who visited it on 4th December 1835, has left us a vivid description: "The only thing remarkable here is the magnificent fortress, which is built upon a small projection of the Vindhya range, looking down on each side into two enormously deep glens, through which the two branches of the Dasan river descend over the tableland into the plains of Bundelkhand. The rays of the sun seldom penetrate to the bottom of these glens, and things are, in consequence, grown there that could not be grown in parts more exposed. Every inch of the level ground in the bed of the streams below seems to be cultivated with care. This fortress is said to have cost more than a million money, and to have been only one of fifty-two great works, of which a former Raja of Bundelkhand, Bir Singh Deo, laid the foundation in the same *happy hour* which has been pointed out to him by his astrologers. The works form an acute triangle, with the base towards the tableland, and the two sides hanging perpendicularly over the glens, while the apex points to the course of the streams as they again unite, and pass out through a deep chasm into the plains of Bundelkhand. The fortress is now entirely deserted, and the town, which the garrison supported, is occupied by only a small police guard, stationed here to see that robbers do not take up their abode among the ruins."[1]

Dhamoni is undoubtedly, a place of great archaeological interest on account of old ruins. The fortress stands on an eminence and has a triangular ground plan enclosing a space of 52 acres, the ramparts having been generally 50 feet high and 15 feet thick with enormous round towers. It has also interior works strengthening the eastern defences, where the magazine and officers' quarters were, probably, situated. Besides the fort, there is a palace called Rani Mahal and a Kachahri, built sometime in 15th century. The garrison used to get water from a large tank, about a mile from the fort. But the whole place now is covered by the jungle growth, with

1. *Ibid*, pp. 110-11.

an affront by the Gwalior Durbar, the exchange was left undisturbed. The Panch Mahal finally ceded to the British Government by a treaty with Sindhia in 1860. In the Bundela Rising of 1842, a Gond Chief Delan Shah rose and plundered the town and later in 1857, the Deori fort was held by Durjan Singh, a landowner of Singhpur, but it was captured by Safdar Hussain of the local police force.

The town contains a temple of Khandoba, built by Dhondu Dattatreya mentioned earlier. A few mediaeval sculptures have been discovered at Deori on the Sukchain river and an elaborately carved doorway deserves notice. The place is well-known for a fire-walking ceremony held in Agrahayana Sudi every year. Large crowds come to witness it from the neighbouring area. There is a sub-post office, a police station, a hospital and a public health centre. Education is provided up to the higher secondary stage, both for boys and girls. The main local industries are bell and utensil making, handloom cloth weaving, and saw-milling. The ornamental iron nut-crackers are also manufactured here. The area of the town is 1,336 acres. The population in 1961 was 9,383.

Dhamoni, tahsil Banda—A village, situated 24° 10′ N and 78° 45′ E, 29 miles north of Sagar on the Jhansi road, has a rich historical past. Though now deserted, it was a place of sufficient importance to be a *garha* in the kingdom of Garha Mandla and had 750 *mouzas*. Surat Shah, a scion of the Garha-Mandla dynasty, is said to have built this fort. A legend says that Abul Fazl, the historian of the Mughal period was born here but there is no authority for this statement. The *Ain-i-Akbari* mentions it as a *mahal* in the *sarkar* of Raisen in the *subah* of Malwa. It is said that a market was held here for the sale of elephants. It was included in the possessions of Bir Singh Deo of Orchha (1605—27), who is said to have rebuilt the fort. On his death the *pargana* of Dhamoni was assigned to his son Narhardas. Subsequently, in 1634, when Jujhar Singh defied the Mughal authoirty, Dhamoni provided a place of refuge for the rebel chief, his family, and valuables. The Imperial forces stormed the fortress, and on entering it found vast quantity of treasures which the fugitives had thrown into the wells. The Emperor appointed Sardar Khan as *Killedar* of the fort and the administration of the tract was also entrusted to him. The pargana of Dhamoni, then amalgamated with Rangir, formed a part of his pay. In the following years Champat Rai Bundela and afterwards his son Chhatrasal harassed

man's garden within. There had been no rain for six months; and everything was so much dried up that the flames spread rapidly; and, though there was no wind when they began, it soon blew a gale. The *Shrimant* was then a little boy with his mother in the fortress, where she lived with his father and nine other relations. The flames soon extended to the fortress, and the powder-magazine blew up. The house in which they lived was burned down, and every soul, except the lieutenant (*sic*) himself, perished in it. His mother tried to bear him off in her arms, but fell down in her struggle to get out with him and died. His nurse Tulsi Kurmin, snatched him up, and ran with him outside the fortress to the bank of the river, where she made him over unhurt to Hariram, the Marwari merchant. He was mounted on a good horse, and making off across the river, he carried him safely to his friends at Gourjhamar; but poor Tulsi the Kurmin fell down exhausted when she saw her charge safe, and died.

"The wind appeared to blow in upon the poor devoted city from every side; and the troops of Zalim Singh, who at first prevented the people from rushing out at the gates, made off in a panic at the horrors before them. All our establishments had been driven into the city at the approach of Zalim Singh's troops; and scores of elephants, hundreds of camels, and thousands of horses and ponies perished in the flames, besides twenty-five thousand souls. Only about five thousand persons escaped out of thirty thousand, and these were reduced to beggary and wretchedness by the loss of their dearest relations and their property."[1] But, soon after, Arjun (Arpan) Singh was himself embroiled in a sanguinary dispute with the Bhonslas of Nagpur and had to seek the aid of Sindhia. For this he had to give up Deori and other districts of Panch Mahal. In October 1818, General Watson occupied Deori, but the tract remained in the possession of Sindhia. the Maratha *muafidar* Ram Chand Rao being given the Pithoria Jagir. Ram Chand Rao, the last Chief of Deori, Sleeman states, was a very small man, not more than five feet high, with the handsomest face ever seen and his manners were those of the most perfect native gentleman[2]. Under the Sindhia's oppressive rule the tract became depopulated, and was consequently given to the British in 1825 on the ground that it required to be 'restored to prosperity'. In 1831 the exchange of Panch Mahal area for the pargana of eastern Shujalpur was negotiated. This was not liked by the Court of Directors, but as the arrangement was convenient for both sides and its cancellation would have been regarded as

1. Sleeman, Rambles and Recollections of an Indian Official, pp. 129—31,
2. *Ibid.* p 125,

is 3,163 acres and it had a population of 1,074 in 1961. It has a branch post office, a subsidiary health centre, the patwari and gram sewak's office, and several schools. The weekly *hat* meets on every Thursday.

Deori, tahsil Rehli.—A municipal town, situated in 23° 05′ N and 78° 40′ E, at an elevation of 1,409 feet on the Sukchain river, is 40 miles from Sagar on the Narsimhapur road. It was formerly called Ramgarh or Ujargarh but following the erection of a temple it was renamed as Deori meaning the "abode of God". The town is believed to have been founded about four hundred years ago by a Chandel Raja, to whom local tradition ascribes the present fort. In the Kingdom of Garha Mandla, the *garha* of Deori contained 750 *mouzas*. Later, it became the capital of a tract known as Panch Mahal comprising Naharmau, Gourjhamar, Chawarpatha and Tendukheda and was in possession of Durga Singh, the Gond ruler of Gourjhamar, who is known to have rebuilt the fort. In 1767 Deori and the attached tract of Panchamahal were given rent free by the Peshwa, to Dhondu Dattatreya, a Deshashta Maratha Brahman. His descendants enjoyed the title of *Shrimant* which was conferred on them by the Peshwa as a reward for taking Kolaba. In April 1813 Deori was attacked by Zalim Singh, the Dewan of the neighbouring Garhakota State, and in the holocaust that followed nearly thirty thousand souls perished. An eye witness account of the burning of Deori reads thus: "Shrimant had been one of the few who escaped from the flames which consumed his capital of Deori in the month of April 1813, and were supposed to have destroyed thirty thousand souls. I asked him to tell me how this happened, and he referred me to his attendant, a learned old pundit, Ram Chand, who stood by his side, as he was himself, he said, then only five years of age, and could recollect nothing of it.

"Mardan Singh", said the pundit, "the father of Raja Arpan Singh, whom you saw at Seori (Deori?), was then our neighbour, reigning over Garhakota; and he had a worthless nephew, Zalim Singh, who had collected together an army of five thousand men, in the hope of getting a little principality for himself in the general scramble for dominion, incident on the rise of the Pindaris and Amir Khan, and the destruction of all balance of power among the great sovereigns of Central India. He came to attack our capital which was an emporium of considerable trade and the seat of many useful manufactures, in the expectation of being able to squeeze out of us a good sum to aid him in his enterprise. While his troops blocked up every gate, fire was, by accident, set to the fence of some

enclosure in a circular tower of four stages of which the unusual feature is four great buttress stairways on the four sides leading to the top. Panels are built into this, and also into the well. The area of the village is 2,688 acres. In 1961 its population was 804. There is a branch post office, a hospital, a police station and a government rest house. Educational facilities include a government higher secondary school, a junior basic school, two primary schools both for the boys and girls and a public library. Saw-milling is an important local industry. A weekly market meets on every Friday.

Bina, tahsil Khurai.—A town, situated in 24° 10′ N and 78° 10′ E, at an elevation of 1,352 feet, is an important railway junction on the Central Railway, 47 miles from Sagar by rail and adjoining the town of Etawa. Bina is now a part of the town of Etawa, the station having been named after the Bina river to avoid confusion with another Etawa in Uttar Pradesh. It is connected with Katni junction on the Central Railway by a branch line through Sagar and Damoh. Another line connects it with Guna. The Bina town Municipality has been working since 1867. The town is fast increasing in size. its population in 1961 was 27,476 as against 1,826 in 1901. It has a railway colony, providing residential accommodation to its employees.

Binaika, tahsil Banda.—A large village, in 24° 05′ N and 78° 50′ E, is 24 miles north of Sagar. It is supposed to have been populated in the 15th century and was held by the Gond Rulers of Garha Mandla from whom it was taken by Raja Bir Singh Deo of Orchha, and was ceded to the Marathas in 1730 by Chhatrasal. Later, the Maratha Governor Vinayakrao built a fort here. In 1842 it was plundered by the Bundela Thakur from Narhut and Chandrapur, and thereafter in 1857, was held by the Raja of Shahgarh. On the 18th July 1857, a company of the soldiers with two European officers was sent from Sagar to Binaika. On the 21st the insurgents, having been reinforced from Shahgarh, attacked this detachment with a gun, and in the action that followed Major Legard was defeated and had to return to Sagar. Binaika was the headquarters of the pargana of Binaika-Patan and the tahsil headquarters remained here until 1861 when it was removed to Banda. Besides the fort, it has a large tank which was improved by the Government at a cost of Rs. 65,000 during the famines of 1897 and 1900. There is a temple of Devi built by the local residents. The middle portion of the temple is in good condition but the sides have fallen down. Another temple is a modern construction, although it has some good old stones used inside it. The area of the village

Barodia Kalan, tahsil Khurai.— Situated in 24°10′ N and 78°35′ E, it is 30 miles north of Sagar on the Jhansi road. There is a ruined fort of the late mediaeval period in the village. On 31st January 1858, an encounter took place at Barodia Kalan between a British force and the insurgents, who had concentrated here after the fall of Rahatgarh fort. A remarkable scene of heroism was enacted in this place, as the Afghan soldiers, even when dying, killed their enemies with their broad swords. From the river Bina to the *garhi* the British had to fight their way step by step The fort was surrounded and occupied, but the casualties suffered by the victors were severe. The area of the village is 5,741 acres and its population in 1961 was 1,863. There is a branch post office, an *ayurvedic* dispensary and a middle school. A weekly *hat* meets here on every Wednesday.

Bhapel (Bhapil), tahsil Sagar.—A village, situated in 23° 45′ N and 87° 35′ E, is 9 miles from Sagar on the Rahatgarh road. It is also called Phuler as there is a temple of Mahadev, locally called Phulnath. During the Great Uprising on 15th December, 1857, Bhapil was the site of an engagement between a British detachment from Sagar and the mutineers. The area of the village is 3,679 acres. Its population in 1961 was 1,133. There is a branch post office, a primary school, a circulating library, a gram panchayat and a nyaya panchayat. An annual religious fair is held on the Purnima day after Diwali which is attended by about 3,000 persons. Bidi-making is an important local industry. The main crops produced here are gram and wheat.

Bilehra, tahsil Sagar.—A village, situated in 23° 35′ N and 78° 40′ E, is 17 miles south of Sagar. It was founded in about 1659 A. D. by a Rajput Chief called Pargal Shah, brother of Udan Shah, the founder of Sagar, who built the small fort which still stands. Later it was assigned, along with other villages, as a grant for the maintenance of the old Dangi rulers of Sagar. The area of the village is 4,729 acres and population 2,971 according to the Census of 1961. There is a branch post office, an *ayurvedic* dispensary, a primary school, a junior basic school and a rural library. A weekly *hat* meets on every Wednesday.

Bina, tahsil Rehli.—A village lying in 23° 20′ N and 79°00′ E, 4 miles from Deori has a few Jain temples of the late mediaeval period. The temples are surrounded by an enclosure, and well carved remains of older temples, such as doors, pillars and panels, are built into them. There are also a few Jain images outside the

Bamora, tahsil Khurai.—A large village, lying 23° 35′ N and 79° 05′ E, is a railway station on the Bina-Itarsi line of the Central Railway. There is a ruined temple built of stones without mortar similar to the one at Janjgir. The date of erection is not known, but it is believed to be very ancient. It contains a small stone image of a Varaha and one of a horse with rider. In one corner is an image of Shiva placed there since the temple passed out of its original use. There are also Buddhist ruins in the village.

The village covers an area of 1,357 acres, and had a population of 2,754 in 1961. There is a police outpost, a veterinary dispensary and a post and telegraph office. Educational facilities include a government senior basic school, a government higher secondary school, a Janapada girls primary school, and a rural library. The place has a grain *mandi* which receives the produce of the Eran pargana. A weekly *hat* meets on every Thursday.

Banda, tahsil Banda.—A town and headquarters of Banda tahsil, situated in 24° 00′ N and 78° 55′ E, is 20 miles south-east of Sagar on the Manpur road. It is the headquarters of the Banda tahsil since 1961 when it was shifted to this place from Binaika on account of its central position. The river Bewas passes about two miles from here. There are some Jain temples and a small tank towards the east of the town. Banda has an area of 2,477 acres and had a population of 4,437 in 1961. It has a police station, a forest range office, a gram panchayat, a nyaya panchayat and a post and telegraph office. The civic amenities include a government hospital with a family planning centre, a public health centre, a higher secondary school and a middle school for girls. A fair is held on Vasant Panchami for a fortnight which attracts large crowds from the neighbouring area. A government rest house is also located here.

Baraitha, tahsil Banda.—A village situated 24° 15′ N and 78° 55′ E, is 37 miles north-east of Sagar and 18 miles from Banda on Banda-Baraitha road. There is an old fort on an adjoining hil-lock. A mica quarry was previously established here and iron vessels were manufactured, but the industry has now declined. There are deposits of iron ore in this place. The area of the village is 2,453 acres. Its population in 1961 was 1,841. The village has a police station, a branch post office, an *ayurvedic* dispensary, a gram panchayat, a nyaya panchayat, a middle school and a rural library. The principal crops grown here are wheat and paddy.

CHAPTER XVII

PLACES OF INTEREST

Abchand, tahsil Sagar.—In the ravines of river Gadheri, ensconced in the dense growth of Abchand reserve forest (23° 45′ N and 78° 55′ E), about 22 miles east of Sagar on the Sagar-Damoh road, exist about a dozen rock-cut caves with paintings of the same type as found at Singhanpur and Adamgarh.The largest cave is about 40 feet in length and its walls contain more than a dozen paintings showing activities of the pre-historic men. The hunting scenes represent individuals or group of hunters. They are equipped with bows and arrows, spears and other weapons. The game animals, shown in these paintings, are bisons, bulls, deer, antelopes, tigers, boars, etc. In one of the shelters a fierce fight between two tigers is faithfully depicted. The primitive people seem to have amused themselves with songs and dances. At one place seven figures are shown dancing hand-in-hand in a row. In front of them are played instruments like drums, *dhapali* and flutes. The colours used in these paintings are yellow, green, red, black and white. The red colour shows different shades, dark ochre and pink. The superimposition or overlapping is also clear in some cases. There are also some symbolic representations such as the Swastika, taurine, cross and the tree-within-railing symbols.

The area of the village is 3,100 acres and its population in 1961 was 691. There is a gram panchayat and a primary school. The main local industry is brick making. An annual fair called the Gufa Mela is held on Makar Sankranti and is usually attended by 2,000 persons.

Baleh, tahsil Rehli.—Situated in 23° 35′ N and 79° 10′ E, it is a village 36 miles south-east of Sagar and 11 miles from Rehli with which it is connected by a road. A record found here mentions Palavana or Yalavana pattala and refers to a Chandika temple. Formerly the estate of Baleh consisting of 53 villages belonged to a Gond family of Pitehra, which being driven out of Deori, settled here in 1747. It has some old tanks and betel vine gardens producing a leaf of some reputation. The area is 4,457 acres. Its population in 1961 was 2,122. It has a branch post office, a Janapada middle school, a gram panchayat and a nyaya panchayat. The weekly *hat* is held on every Tuesday.

Rock-paintings from Abchand, depicting a group dance.

Rock-paintings from Nariaoli, showing an acrobatic scene.

a number of custard apple trees, and is a favourite haunt of wild beasts. On the edge of the village stand few Jain temples built between 1815-19. and one of them has some paintings. There are five tombs (*Chetakes*) dotted about in the jungle. Other prominent objects here are the tombs of two Muslim saints. The important one is that of Baljati Shah, supposed to be the preceptor of Abul Fazl. Two villages, Sesai and Ishakpura, were held revenue-free for the support of this tomb and there is a committee with the Tahsildar as president. The other is supposed to be that of Aintha Sha Wali, a Muhammadan saint. who is said to have cursed Dhamoni because he could not get water there; and his curse is believed still to lie on the country and prevent its being brought under cultivation. Various tales are current about the tombs of these saints. The area of the village is 261 acres

Eran, tahsil **Khurai**.—An ancient site. lying in 24° 05′ N and 78° 10′ E, at the junction of the Bina and Reuta rivers, 6 miles from Bamora station on the Central Railways By its natural situation, Eran is at the gate of Bundelkhand on one side and Malwa on the other. The name is derived from the abundant growth of *Eraka*, a sort of grass of emollient and diluent properties. Some suggest that it takes its name from Airaka, a Naga, as the Eran coins bear a Naga (serpent) figure. Our sources of information about the history of Eran in the early days are meagre. Though the archaeological remains date from the times of Guptas, the coins found here show that the place was inhabited before the Christian era The site has yielded the earliest inscribed coin. the legend being '*Dha(r) mapalasa*', read round the coin from right to left in Brahmi characters anterior to those of Asoka's time. From the coins bearing the legend Erakanya, it is inferred that Eran was a republican state. A Saka ruler, Shridharavarman, whose name occurs on a local memorial pillar. was ruling over this part in the beginning of the 4th century A.D. Samudra Gupta's temple, which still exists, suggests that the town was conquered by him. From his time onwards it was administered as a *pradesh* (province) of the Gupta empire and the contemporary records preserve the names of the governors or feudatories who ruled over it. Ghatotkachagupta, a scion of the ruling dynasty, was a governor in the time of Samudragupta. Another governor, Matrivishnu, called a Maharaja, but a subordinate of king Surasmichandra, governed round Eran in 484 A.D. It again figures as a battle-field in Bhanugupta's time, as recorded on a memorial pillar dedicated to Goparaja, a Gupta general, who fought and died

in the time of the Hunas, and his devoted wife in close companionship accompanied him on the funeral pyre. About this time either as a consequence of the battle or in the wake of his conquests, the Huna emperor, Toramana, made himself the master of this region. Eran retained its importance till the 7th century A.D., and some believe that it was the capital of Jejakbhukti, as it agrees with the distance referred to by Hiuen Tsang, which is not impossible. Subsequently in the days of Akbar it was a *mahal* in the *sarkar* of Chanderi of the *subah* of Malwa. It came under the possession of the British in March 1818. Eran was the centre of the pargana to which it gave its name and which contained 27 villages and an area of 26 sq. miles.

The village of Eran has a most interesting collection of archaeological relics. There is a fort in ruins attributed to the Dangis, who formerly dominated over this region. The site once had a number of small Vishnu shrines but nothing now remains except some of the lower courses of masonry, four standing columns with their architraves and some beams and parts of door-ways. The principal statue is a colossal Varaha about 10 feet high. A garland of small human figures is sculptured on a band round the neck while the body is covered by small circular ornaments. It has the earth, represented as a woman, hanging on the right tusk, in accordance with the legend, and over its shoulders there is a small four-sided shrine with a sitting figure in each face of it Across the chest of the Boar is an eight-line inscription of Dhanyavishnu recording its erection in the first regnal year of King Toramana. This statue lying amidst remains of a temple is, perhaps, one of the oldest Brahmanical figures in India. The other statue of Vishnu is a big image facing east and dressed in a *dhoti* or loin cloth and wearing a sacrificial thread. He holds a sword in one hand and a mace in the other, and has an immense round shield on his back, and bangles on his wrists. The most noteworthy monument is the great monolithic pillar, 47 feet high, which was set up during the reign of Budhagupta by Matrivishnu and his brother Dhanyavishnu. The lower part of the shaft, for a height of 20 feet, is 2 feet 10¼ inches square above which it becomes octagonal for a further height of 8 feet to the bottom of the capital. The lower portion of the capital is formed of a reeded bell, above which is an abacus surmounted by a square block. The lower half of this is plain but the upper half presents two lions on each face sitting back to back, after the style of the Gupta capitals of Central India Near Eran, about half a mile at Pahlejpur, is another octagonal pillar with rounded tops containing inscription recording, perhaps, the earliest known sati immolation of

India. The recent excavations, conducted by the Department of Archaeology of the University of Saugar have yielded relics, similar to those found at Maheshwar and Tripuri, showing that Eran formed the northern-most limit of the Chalcolithic culture in Madhya Pradesh. The findings of the black cotton soil stratum, associated with the microlithic industry, have revealed a phase of culture, provisionally assigned to the second half of the second millenium B. C. This stratum found under the black and red consists of microlithic implements, specimens of painted grey ware, terracotta, animal figures and a small piece of copper. There are evidences of structures made of fired bricks measuring 43 X 25 X 7.5 Cms. The other antiquities discovered so far included punch-marked and cast tribal copper coins, beads, a weight of jasper, objects of iron, bones and other articles of daily use. Except for a roughly circular fire-pit, with slightly raised burnt walls, no structural remains were found. A discovery of outstanding significance is the coin of Ramgupta, and a semi-circular lead piece and impression of a die with legend in Mauryan Brahmi reading *Rano Idagutasa* 'of King Indraguta'. The area of the village is 1,449 acres and has a population of 301 according to the Census of 1961

Etawa, tahsil Khurai—A large town, situated in 24° 10′ N and 78° 10′ E, near the Bina railway junction, is 48 miles from Sagar. The *Ain-i-Akbari* mentions it as *mahal* in the *sarkar* of Chanderi in the *subah* of Malwa. The tract was assigned to Ramchandra Ballal in 1818 as a reward for help rendered to the British, and he exercised civil and criminal jurisdiction over it. It was the headquarters of the pargana of the same name comprising 41 villages with an area of 61 square miles A few temples in and near the town have exquisite stone work. Bahdora, near Etawa, has temples of Krishna containing fine specimens of stone carvings It is a town of considerable commercial importance, and trade in grain and other produce has rapidly grown due to its favourable situation The area of this municipal town is 3,186 acres. There is a post and telegraph office, a police station, a hospital and several educational institutions. An outlying office of the Deputy Agriculture Assistant is also located here. A weekly *hat* meets on every Friday.

Garhakota, tahsil Rehli.—A town, in 23° 45′ N and 79° 05′ E, is situated 26 miles east of Sagar at the junction of Gadheri and Sonar rivers. It is 9 miles from the nearest railway station Patharia. The earliest settlers in this part were Gonds in whose time it was a *garha* containing 360 *mouzas*. In the 17th century it fell to a Rajput chief Chandan Shah, who built the fortress. It was originally called Kota, but after the construction of a fort its name was changed

to Garhakota. Jalal Khan, the brother of Ibrahim Lodi, who contested the throne of Delhi, was killed near Garhakota in 1578 by the Gonds who sent his head to the Emperor. In 1673 Rahullah Khan, the *Faujdar* of Dhamoni, attacked it with a view to dislodging Diwan Baldiwan, whom Chhatrasal had put in charge of the fort, and in the sanguniary battle that ensued the Imperial army suffered heavy losses. Soon after the Mughals seized it again, but Chhatrasal re-occupied it by killing its *Faujdar* Ikhlas Khan. In 1682 the Bundela garrison was driven out by Shamsher Khan, who lost about a hundred cavalry. Then, in 1703, Hirde Shah, a son of Chhatrasal, captured it by ousting its Rajput owner, who was given the village of Naigaon which was later held by his descendants. Hirde Shah was deeply attached to this place and built a town, now called Hirdavanagar, near the river Sonar. After his death, a dispute arose over the control of this area, and one of his sons, named Prithviraj, managed to get it with the help of Peshwa. In 1785 Mardan Singh succeeded to the *gaddi*. He was a wise ruler and has left several beautiful edifices in Garhakota and its vicinity. A large and important cattle fair held in the month of February dates from his time. In 1810 Garhakota was invested by the troops of Bhonsla ruler of Nagpur at the instigation of the ruler of Sagar, whom Mardan Singh had offended earlier by stopping the annual payment. Mardan Singh was killed, but his son Arjun Singh defeated the Nagpur troops with the help of Col. Jean Baptiste, a General in Sindhia's army. According to an agreement Sindhia took possession of Garhakota, Malthone, Naharmau, Deori and Gourjhamar, leaving to Arjun Singh the hilly tracts of Shahgarh. It is said that when the division was being made, Arjun Singh asked for Shahgarh thinking that this would induce Sindhia to consider it the best part of the state and to take it to himself. The Sindhia was, however, not duped by this and Arjun Singh lost the richest possession of his dominion. Baptiste stayed here for some time as governor. In 1819 Arjun Singh seized the fort again, but after holding it for six months was expelled by the British force. The place was managed on behalf of Sindhia until 1860 when it was acquired by the British by exchange. In 1857 the fort of Garhakota was held by the rebels and a large body of Bundela insurgents under Pajan Singh *alias* Bodhan Dowa, a sardar of Shahgarh. When Hugh Rose arrived before it at half past three O' clock in the afternoon of the 11th February 1858, he found earth works on the road to the south from where rebels expected British army to come. and that they had occupied the village of Basari near the fort. A sharp skirmish followed and Sir Hugh drove them from the village. The rebels made determined attacks throughout the night, but failed to re-

cover the lost positions. The capture of Garhakota was a significant event and in his report to the Government, Sir Robert Hamilton wrote: "I cannot but consider it most fortunate that the fort at Garhakota has been so easily obtained, for it is beyond exception the strongest and most difficult I have seen in Bundelkhand, indeed as formidable as any I have met with in India. We have not only saved a great deal of time but we have not lost a life, whilst the impression that the fall of this celebrated fort will make throughout this country will be far greater than can well be conceived, it being deemed impregnable".

The Garhakota and its vicinity is archaeologically interesting. The most important monument is the stronghold situated on an elevated ground. At a distance of 2 miles from the town in the forest are the remains of a large summer palace attributed to Raja Mardan Singh The most remarkable part of this ruins is a lofty tower, the ground plan of which is square, each side measuring about 15 feet It is about 100 feet high and a winding stone staircase runs round it. The tower is said to have been built by Raja Mardan Singh to satisfy the whims of his queen who wished to see the lights of Sagar and Damoh from its summit. The recent explorations have brought into light an implementiferous well-cemented gravel on the Sonar at Garhakota The area of the town is 2,721 acres and its population in 1961 was 11,341.

The main local industries are dyeing, utensil-making, bangle-making and handloom weaving The town is electrified and has a sub-post office, a police station, a hospital and two public libraries The educational institutions comprise a higher secondary school, a middle school and two primary schools for girls.

Garhola, tahsil Khurai.—A large village, lying in 24°00′N and 78° 25′ E, is 22 miles from Sagar The Village is surrounded by a stone wall and contains a small fort. To the east of it is a tank covering 76 acres. It was held revenue-free by an old Dangi family which had extensive tracts in Khurai The area of the village is 5,515 acres and its population in 1961 was 1,350. There is a branch post office and a middle school. The soil is very fertile and rice is grown in plenty The bananas of Garhola are well known locally.

Garhpahra, tahsil Sagar—Also called old Sagar, was the capital of the Dangi Kingdom and is situated in 23° 50′ N. and 78° 40′ E, 6 miles north of Sagar on Jhansi road. Its antiquity dates from the days of the Gond ruler Sangram Shah when Garhpahra was a garha containing 360 *mouzas*. Later the Dangi Rajputs, who claimed to

be descendants from Raja Dang, a Kachhwha Rajput of Narwar, are said to have consquered this part and added it to their principality. Of Raja Dang nothing more is known except a rude couplet which records how he was let in by a horse dealer.

Jit ki ghori tit gayi Dang hath karhari rahi.

(A mare bolted back to the seller again, leaving in Dang's hand only the rein)

Of the rulers of Garhpahra only three names are known: Prithvipat, Maharaja Kumar and Man Singh. Prithvipat ruled in Garhpahra about the year 1689, as a jagirdar of the Mughal Government. He was a man of weak intellect and is well remembered in popular tradition. He is said to have amused himself by shooting arrows at the moon from the terrace of his palace at Garhpahra and his licentious habits have been commemorated in local sayings according to which he enforced the *dorit de seigneur* compelling every bride to pass her first night with him. He was dispossessed by Chhatrasal's sons, who permitted him to live at Parkota in Sagar where he stayed for some years. About 1727 A.D. Sawai Jaisingh of Amber helped him to get back his lost patrimony. The Dangi chief continued to remain at Parkota till 1732 A.D., when two of his unfaithful officers betrayed it into the hands of Nawab Dalip Khan of Kurwai. The epigraphical records further show that in 1747 A.D. the principality of Garhpahra extended upto Kuailo, a village 23 miles to the north-east of Sagar. A sati stone dated V. S. 1804 (A.D 1747) records the death of prince Umed Singh, the governor of Kuailo under his father, Maharaj Kumar of Garhpahra. Subsequently the Marathas took possession of it and appointed Raja of Bilehra as a jagirdar of this place.

Garhpahra still has some historical remains. The fort, built on a low range of hills, is approached by a steep road leading to bastion, a rough gateway and a white-washed temple on a platform. There are remains of a summer residence called the Sheesh mahal or 'glass palace' of the Dangi rulers. It is a square building, very much like a Muslim tomb consisting of two storeys, each room having a verandah all round. The glazed tiles of various colours are fixed alternatively in the panel of the battlement and in the ribbing of the domes. It is attributed to Raja Jaisingh who is supposed to have lived about 200 years ago. In the neighbourhood is a tomb, which is treated as an object of worship. Regarding this the story is that once a *natni* (female acrobat) so pleased a king that he promised to give her half of his kingdom if she could walk over the space between two adjoining hills on rope. But she could not complete her feat as a jealous

queen cut the rope, with the result that the acrobat fell and died. A similar story is generally current in places where two adjoining hills are found. Below the hill towards the north is a small lake called Motital. The area of the village is 533 acres.

Gourjhamar, tahsil Rehli.—A large village lying 23° 30′ N and 79° 00′ E, is 28 miles south of Sagar on the Kareli road. It was first populated by the Gond rulers of Deori and was a *garha* in the dominion of Sangram Shah containing 750 *mouzas*. Later, it was included in the principality of Madhukar Shah of Orchha, and after his death in 1592, Gourjhamar was assigned to his younger son Ratan Singh. After Chhatrasal's death it went to the Peshwa The Maratha rulers of Sagar imprisoned Sumer Shah in the fort of Gourjhamar. In 1811 it was given to Sindhia in return for the aid received against the Bhonslas of Nagpur, and Sindhia later gave it to the British. It was the capital of the pargana of the same name comprising 31 villages. The area is 1,421 acres with a population of 2,889 in 1961. The main local industries are handloom weaving and dyeing. There is a branch post office, an *ayurvedic* dispensary, a Janapada higher secondary school, a girls primary school and a rural library.

Hirapur, tahsil Banda.—A large village, near Tigora reserve forests, in 24° 20′ N and 79° 10′ E, is 47 miles north of Sagar on the Kanpur road. It has a small fort and a tank which was improved in the famine of 1900 by the government at a cost of Rs. 7,000. There are deposits of iron in the village and neighbourhood Iron smelting was done on a small scale Bamboo work is also a popular industry in the locality. It has a branch post office, a police out-post, a middle school, a rural library and a government rest-house. The area of the village is 6,135 acres and its population in 1961 was 1,442.

Jaisinghnagar, tahsil Sagar.—A large village situated in 23° 35′ N and 78° 30′ E, is 21 miles south-west of Sagar on the Jaisinghnagar road. It was founded by Raja Jaisingh, the ruler of Garhpahra, after whom it is known He also built a fort which is now in ruins. In 1828 Jaisinghnagar was assigned as an appanage to Rukma Bai, the widow of Raghunathrao, and Ganpatrao was appointed to manage the state for her. Three years later, however, she relinquished the place for a cash payment, and it was subsequently given to Ganpatrao whose descendants continued to live there. Jaisinghnagar was the chief town of a pargana comprising 51 villages to which it gave its name. There is a large tank which was improved

by the government in the famine of 1896-97. The area is 2,668 acres and its population in 1961 was 2,603. Bell-making and dyeing are the chief local industries. It has a branch post-office, a police station, a public health centre, and an *ayurvedic* dispensary. The Block Development and Deputy Ranger's offices are located here. There is a gram panchayat, a nyaya panchayat, a primary school, a middle school and rural library.

Jaitpur, tahsil Rehli.—A small village, in 23° 25′ N and 78° 50′ E, 12 miles from Deori, has an area of 782 acres with a population of 152 persons. A local fair is held on last two days of Navadurga in the month of Chaitra and Asvina. It commemorates the memory of one Kalyan Baba, a holy man of Barmhan who died here. People assemble in great numbers and take bath in the Kopra river which flows past the village. The village has a branch post office and a rural library.

Jhagri, tahsil Banda.—A large village, lying in 23° 55′ N and 78° 55′ E, 5 miles from Banda on the river Bewas, is known for a small fair held on the Makar Sankranti, when about 2,000 persons assemble here. They worship the image of Mahadeva who is said to have asked a Brahman in dream to dig him out from a particular spot in the village. It has a gram panchayat and a primary school. Wheat and gram are the principal crops of the village. The area is 1,083 acres and it has a population of 607 according to the Census of 1961.

Kanjia, tahsil Khurai.—A village, in 24° 20′ N and 78° 00′ E, is 69 miles north-west of Sagar. Its former name was Karanjiya as recorded in an inscription which records the construction of a mosque in A. H. 1003 (1594-95 A.D.) by Gulab Khan, descendant of Shamahir Khan. It was included in the Jagir of Nawab Sayyid Safdar Khan in whose days a mosque was erected by Chaudhari Safdar in A. H. 1051 of 1642 A. D. The Bundela Chieftain of Chanderi, Devi Singh (1634-36), to whom is attributed the foundation of this town, held it as a grant from the Mughal Emperor. Later Kanjia was assigned to his son Shahu Singh by Muhammad Shah (1719-48). Immediately after the establishment of British rule in 1818, it was made over to Sindhia with whom it remained until 1860 when it became a part of British territory by exchange. Later, it became the headquarters of the pargana to which it gave its name comprising 105 villages with an area of 187 sq. miles. A legend is prevalent that a great battle took place here in the time of Chhatrasal, and the particular spot, called the 'Ganj Shaheed', is still regarded as sacred by the people.

The area of the village is 3,120 acres and its population in 1961 was 933. There is a branch post office, a police out-post and a junior basic school.

Khimlasa, tahsil Khurai.—A town, situated in 24° 10'N and 78° 20'E, is 41 miles north-west of Sagar and 12 miles from Etawa on the Etawa-Malthone road. Khimlasa is said to have been founded by a Muhammadan noble and was a *mahal* in the *sarkar* of Raisen of the *subah* of Malwa Afterwards it was held by Anup Singh, the Raja of Panna. In 1778 Col. Goddard's army marching to south passed through this place. It was the headquarters of the Khurai tahsil up to 1834 and of the Khurai-Khimlasa Pargana which contained 175 villages with an area of 286 sq. miles.

The town of Khimlasa is enclosed within a fortified wall built of stone rubble more or less coursed. It is about 20 feet high and is now in a dilapidated condition. In the centre of the town is a bastioned fort of which the gateways alone form an interesting feature. On one side of the fort is the *dargah* of the Panch Pirs, with an elaborately carved perforated screen work, which deserves a special mention. The structure, measuring 28 feet 8 inches square stands on a plinth of plain coursed stone work with a simple coping. Describing this monument J. F. Blackiston states:

> "At the four corners of the building are piers about 10 inches square, and in each side are two other piers of similar dimensions. Round the base is an ornamental plinth about 1 foot 3 inches in height. Between the piers are three vertical panels of screen work, the two upper courses being pierced and the lower not cut quite through Each centre bay contains four horizontal panels or nine in all. A doorway is set in the centre of south side and above it is an arch with pierced work between it and the lintel, which is supported by small corbels of Hindu design. In the spendrils of the arch are bosses. On the tops of the pier, which are square at the bases and for a foot below the capitals otherwise octagonal with simple carved designs, are corbel capitals. Above again are projecting arms, on the wall ends of which are lintels, which carry the projecting caves. Lintels also rest on the capitals of the piers and carry the super walling or parapet. A couple of carved courses run round above the caves course, and above them are simple pointed merlons, which serve as a facing to the walling behind. The whole is capped with an almost plain coping.

"The interior walls and very similar to the exterior except that in the centre bay of the west side a *mihrab* is set, and here the panels are unpierced and all round the lower course, of what are panels outside, a kind of accaded design is executed, which is only broken by the piers, *mihrab* and doorways; capitals as similar to these outside are set on the piers and they carry lintels, which cut off the corners of the building and form an octagon. The successive courses above form sixteen, thirty-two and circular plans. Above the third circular courses the dome has disappeared. The tombs of the saints are like hundreds of others that are scattered about the place and consist of carved stone slabs on rather kaccha platforms."[1]

The two temples in the fort, as well as the *Kachahri* are of moderate antiquity. The building called Nagina Mahal or the "Cameo Pavilion' is in a very dilapidated state. It must at one time have been a pretty little structure with pillared porches on the north and east sides and a wide projecting balcony on brackets on the south and west sides. The central domed part is also carried on columns, twelve in all, the corner ones being made up of four columns joined together and the intermediate columns of two joined together. Above this part of the structure was another chamber with columns and screen work between. The *chajja* round this room is supported by carved struts somewhat like those on the tomb of Shaikh Salim Chisti. The *dargah* has five inscriptions, three of which are on the tombs in Arabic and are quotations from *Koran*. The remaining two in Persian are on the gateway and have been seriously damaged. They apparently give the name of the builder and the ruling king. In the village is a plain stone three-domed mosque probably built in Akbar's time as evidenced by the inscription dated A. H. 980 (A.D. 1572). It is approached through a large gateway into a courtyard, and beyond across another gate is a large modern Jain temple. The Barra Bazar is rather interesting and picturesque, all the buildings having in front of them two-storied verandahs carried on stone columns. The *Idgah* outside the wall, which is believed to have been erected in Aurangzeb's reign by Shaikh Junaid, is of no special interest.

The area is 2,781 acres and its population according to the Census of 1961 is 2,703. Bell metal industry is a well-known local industry. It has a branch post office, a police out-post, a middle school and a rural library. A *hat* meets on every Sunday.

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1. Conservation note dated the 6th March 1913, case file 14/R VII—I of 1914, (Sagar Collectorate).

Khurai, tahsil Khurai—A town and headquarters of the tahsil of the same name, is situated in 24°00′ N and 78°15′ E, 33 miles from Sagar on the railway line towards Bina. It stands half a mile from the station and is supposed to have been founded by Aurangzeb on this particular site because, while hunting in this part, it is said that he found a hare chasing the dogs. This made him believe that a place in which an animal like the hare, ordinarily timid, displayed such courage must also produce brave men and he determined to found the city. Formerly it was held by one Khemchand Dangi, who built the fort. His descendants later held Garhola revenue free. Govind Pandit erected the local fort, excavated the tank which washes its southern wall, and built a small temple in a masonry tank surrounded by water. His son and successor, Raghunath Rao, imprisoned the Gond ruler Narhar Shah and his minister Gangagiri, in this fort. After sometime Raghunath Rao executed the minister by fastening him to the foot of an elephant. In 1834, the tahsil was removed to Khurai from Khimlasa and it became headquarters of the Khurai-Khimlasa pargana which contained 175 villages with an area of 286 sq. miles. During the Bundela Rising it was looted by Bundela insurgents from Narhut and later in 1857, it was seized by Raja of Banpur. The town is being managed by a municipality since 1867.

The town contains a few old remains of interest. A fort with eight large towers and a fine gateway commands the surrounding country. The older part of the building is constructed without mortar. Some Jain temples, one of which stands in the town, have exquisite stone carvings. The area of the town is 2,590 acres and its population in 1961 was 15,316. It is supplied with electricity and has a police station, a sub-post office, a public health centre and a family planning clinic. Educational institutions comprise several primary schools, two middle schools, and two higher secondary schools.

A Public library is managed by the municipality. The main local industries are leather-tanning, bell-making and utensil manufacturing. Once Khurai was famous for blankets. A grain *mandi* also exists here. A weekly *hat* meets here on every Monday. It has a government rest-house, a *sarai* and a *Dharmashala.*

Malthone, tahsil Khurai—A village, situated in 25° 15′N and 78° 30′E, is 40 miles north-west of Sagar on the Jhansi road. It stands on the slopes of the Vindhyan range leading to Bundelkhand through a pass called Narhut ghat. Tradition states that it was founded by Mohammad Khan, a noble of the Mughal Emperor Akbar, in 1600 A.D. Subsequently, it passed into the possesson of the Gonds,

and then into the hands of Diwan Achal Singh, the son of Chhatrasal Bundela. He was in turn ousted by Prithvi Singh of Garhakota. It was ceded in 1809 by Arjun Singh to Sindhia and was acquired by the British in 1820 in exchange for other territory. In March 1818 the British army assembled at this place before advancing to Sagar and other places. During the Bundela Rising of 1842, two landlords of Narhut ghat, Madhukar Shah and Ganeshju, who had been served with civil court decrees, rose in rebellion and sacked several towns. On 25th June, 1857, a detachment sent to the relief of the Europeans at Lalitpur, mutinied on reaching Malthone. It was later seized by the Raja of Banpur, who occupied it with eight to ten thousand men. The Narhut ghat was barricaded with boulders of rocks, but on 4th March 1858, it was stormed by Sir Hugh Rose on his way to Jhansi

The village has a few antiquarian remains, including an *Idgah*, a ruined fort, and several inscribed sati stones with dates ranging between 1732 and 1778 A.D. The *Idgah* stands on the east of the village on the banks of a tank and has an inscription which is believed to indicate the existence of a buried treasure. The fort is in a ruined state and nothing except a tower called the 'Kamal Durg' can be seen.

The area of the village is 1,635 acres and in 1961 its population was 2,363. The village has a police station, a branch post office, and a forest inspection house. Educational facilities include a Janapada middle school. A Government rest house is located here. A weekly *hat* meets every Saturday.

Nariaoli (Naryauli), tahsil Sagar.– A village, situated in 23° 50′N and 78°35′ E, 12 miles from Sagar on the Khurai road, it the first railway station from Sagar on the railway line towards Bina. Recent explorations have revealed two groups of rock shelters with paintings in red ochre. They represent domestic and battle scenes and horse riding, proving it to be a prehistoric site. In the vicinity of Nariaoli, at a distance of 5 miles, stands a Jain temple at Gohurwara built in 1630 A. D. It has an inscription which gives date of its erection and name of the builder. In the Rising of 1842, it was looted by the Bundela insurgents from north. Later in July 1857, the Raja of Banpur took a very strong position at Nariaoli, and on the 25th his troops advanced on the Sagar cantonment and fired on the out-houses of Artillery Barracks, and then returned. On the 17th September, they again made an attack on the Rahatgarh gate of Sagar city, and after firing a few shots at the sentries, retired.

Next day, a detachment commanded by Col. Dalyell of the 42nd advanced on Nariaoli, along with two hundred Custom *Chaprasis*. An engagement took place near the fort situated on a hill, but as the place was found too strong, the British force returned without success. Col. Dalyell was killed and Lieut. Prior, the Executive Engineer, was wounded.

The area of the village is 2,911 acres and its pupulation in 1961 was 1611. Pottery and Bidi-making are the two main local industries. It has a branch post office, a police station, a dispensary and a maternity and child welfare centre. Educational facilities comprise two primary schools, a junior basic school and a rural library.

Pali, tahsil Sagar.- A village, situated in 23° 57'N and 24° 30'E, is 19 miles from Sagar on Khurai road. It has a Shiva temple built during the time of the Chandellas. The upper part of the temple is broken and an image of Shiva-Parvati lies outside which was, perhaps, the original image in the temple where a modern linga is now installed The ceiling is plain but the gateway is beautifully carved. The exterior walls are decorated with the sculptures of gods and godesses of the Hindu pantheon. The area of the village is 1,405 acres and its population in 1961 was 266. Wheat and gram are the main crops.

Pithoria, tahsil Khurai.– A village situated in 24° 00'N and 78° 30'E, is 12 miles north-west of Sagar. The village is an old one as a five-line stone incription dated V. S. 993 (A. D. 936) refers to Mahatavideva (a name of Shiva). The first line begins with a salutation to the goddess Ambika Formerly it was the headquarters of an estate known as Pithoria *jagir* comprising 26 villages with an area of 51 sq. miles. The estate was awarded to Rao Ramchandra Rao of Deori when the latter place was transferred to Sindhia in 1818. It contains an old fort and remains of a Kalachuri temple with images of Ganesa, Siva, Nandi and Narsimha. There is a large tank located here. The area is 1, 328 acres and its population in 1961 was 1,473. Bangle making is the main industry It has a branch post office, a middle school, and a girls primary school.

Rahatgarh, tahsil Sagar.--A small town, situated in 23° 35'N and 78° 20' E, is 25 miles west of Sagar and 73 miles north-east of Bhopal, and lies at the foot of an ancient citadel renowned for its battlemented ramparts, its gates and its ruins of palaces, temples and mosques. It is picturesquely situated on the steep bank of the river Bina which is crossed at this point by a fine bridge of fourteen arches, completed in 1863 at a cost of Rs. 56,000. Rahatgarh has historical traditions dating back to eleventh century A.D. A fragmentary stone

inscription of eleventh century A.D. refers to the Uparahada *mandala* of the Paramara king Jaisinghdeva of Dhar. The Uparahada *mandala* remains unidentified as yet, but it can safely be presumed that Rahatgarh lay well within the domain of the Paramara rulers. Later it is mentioned as one of the *garhas* in the Garha Mandla kingdom comprising 350 villages. After the heroic end of the valiant Gond queen Durgavati, Chandrashah, an uncle of ill-starred Bir Singh, ceded it to the Mughal Emperor in lieu of his claims to the throne. Aurangzeb granted it to a Mughal grandee of his court. Later still, it came into the possession of Sultan Muhammad Khan, a claimant to the *masnad* of Bhopal, who, having been defeated by Diwan Bijal Ram in 1742, fled to Rahatgarh where he was welcomed by the governor of the fort. The Bhopal army laid seige to the fort but Mamola Bibi, the widow of the Nawab Yar Muhammad Khan, sought a cessation of the family feuds and Rahatgarh with surrounding districts was made over to Sultan Muhammad in a jagir, on his undertaking to renounce all claims to the chiefship. In 1799 Amir Ali, the Pindari chief, sacked Rahatgarh and an interesting account of this is available in Malcolm's *Memoir of Central India*. The Nawabs of Garhi Ambapani, as the family of Sultan Muhammad was called, held Rahatgarh till 1807 when the fort and the town was annexed by Sindhia. It was then the chief town of a pargana yielding a revenue of ten thousand rupees. It passed under the management of the British in 1826, to defray the expenses of a contingent of troops and was finally ceded in 1861. In the Uprising of 1857 it was taken possession of by Fazl Muhammad Khan, a descendent of Nawab of Garhi Ambapani, with the help of a resolute band of *Vilayaties*. He succeeded in establishing his authority by levying taxes and inflicting dire punishments on persons suspected of complicity with the British. When Sir Hugh Rose arrived before this fort on the morning of 24th January, he found rebels lining the stream and well entrenched in the town. After a brisk skirmish the British columns completely invested the place. The besiegers' guns kept a ceaseless fire on the fort. Just when a large breach was made at 10 p.m on January 28, the Raja of Banpur advanced at the head of a large force for the relief of the garrison. His troops, however, retired after a short struggle. This failure dismayed them so much that the garrison fled by an ancient sally port and a hole dug under the parapet to the south-west. On 20th morning, rebels were pursued and the British troops succeeded in capturing nearly one hundred insurgents including several leaders. The capture of the fort was followed by a cruel retribution. On 30th, Fazl Muhammad's dead body was hung on the gates side by side with that of Kamadar Khan. Inside the fort were found great stores of salt and grain, sufficient for a year's consumption, a few camels, cattle and several horses, two of them belonging to Muhammad Fazl Khan, one with a silver bridle; a mould for casting cannon and shot; and immense mass of correspondence.

The town has a few archaeological remains of note in various stages of decay. Close to the town stands the famous fort of Rahatgarh. Its outer wall consists of 26 enormous towers, some of which were used as dwellings connected by curtain walls and enclosing a space of 66 acres. The ascent to it is by means of a long winding path defended by outworks and five gates in succession before the interior of the fort can be reached. The last gate leads to the courtyard of a palace called Badal Mahal or the "Cloud Palace" from its great height and elevated situation. It is attributed to one of the Raj Gond chiefs of Garha Mandla. Another high tower is called Jogan Burj or 'Executioner's Tower' as prisoners were hurled down from it on the pointed rocks of the Bina river below Nearby is a fine arched mosque in a moderate state of repairs. There is a large and deep tank dug out of a solid rock; the descent is by steep and dangerous looking steps formed of large square blocks of stones which seem to have remained undisturbed since the ancient founders first laid them. Near it is a small building which looks like a temple but is really a memorial tomb to one Haji Ratan, who was much respected by Muslims and Hindus alike. At the north-west corner of the outer wall, which once enclosed building of all descriptions and a bazar in the old days, is a small temple of Mahadeo, erected by Lala Sukh Ram in 1838-44 A.D. It is constructed of cut-stone and is the best specimen of temple architecture in Rahatgarh. There are also few scenic spots along the banks of the Bina which have many wooded reaches in the vicinity. Two miles away from the fort is a waterfall nearly 50 feet high in picturesque surroundings.

The area of the town is 1,237 acres and its population in 1961 was 6,070. The main local industries are bell-making, bangle-making and handloom weaving. It has a police station, a sub-post office, a hospital, a public health centre, a family planning clinic and a forest inspection house. There is a junior basic school and a village library. Besides a government rest house, a private *sarai* and a *dharmashala* are built here.

Rangir, tahsil Rehli. —A village, situated in 23°35'N and 78° 50' E, 10 miles from Rehli and 21 miles from Sagar on Sagar-Rehli road on the bank of the Dehar river. It was the site of an enagagement between Chhatrasal Bundela and Khaliq, the Mughal *Fauzdar* of Dhamoni. When this region passed into the hands of the Maratha Subahadar Govind Rao Pundit, he located his headquarters first at Rangir. On an adjoining hill stands a temple of Harsiddhi Devi in whose honour fairs are held in the months of Asvina and Chaitra. The Chaitra fair is an important one, and about 30,000 persons visit the temple. The image of the goddess is held in great veneration and

people believe that she changes her form thrice every day, as a child at dawn, a young girl at mid-day and an old woman in the evening. The area of the village is 484 acres and its population according to the Census of 1961 was 167. A government rest house is located here.

Rehli, tahsil Rehli.—It is the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name, situated in 23°35′ N and 79°00′ E, at the junction of the Sonar and Dehar rivers, about 26 miles south-east of Sagar by which it is connected by a metalled road. Rehli is traditionally said to have been populated by Fauladi Ahirs in the 14th century, and was afterwards included in the dominion of Chhatrasal Bundela, who ceded it to Peshwa Bajirao in 1731. It was taken possession of by Major Rose in March 1818. In 1857 it was held by Bundela rebels. On 2nd October, the Deputy Commissioner of Sagar sent a hundred sepoys of the 31st Bengal Infantry, to recover Rehli, but before they arrived the fort had been recovered through the treachery of a local inhabitant, named Girdhari Naik, who was made *Killedar* of the fort. On the 13th Rehli was again attacked by the mutineers from Garhakota, but Lieut. Dickens managed to hold it till the advance of Sir Hugh Rose.

The fort, picturesquely situated above the Sonar river, was built by the Marathas or, as some say, by the Ahirs and later completed by the Marathas. It is partially in ruins, and the space enclosed within it, nearly two acres in extent, is covered with the remains of the Maratha buildings. Rehli itself has a few fine temples, and in the suburbs of Pandhalpur, about a mile distant, is a temple of Pandrinath built 200 years ago In Gopalpur, 3 miles south of Rehli, there is an old temple of Tikhi Toria erected by Gopal Rao of Rehli. The only object of architectural importance here is a fragment of the plinth of an older temple. The recent explorations in the valley of the Sonar, particularly at Rehli and Ghogra, have yielded twenty-five implements *in situ* from a highly-cemented gravel-bed of Abbevillian to Mid-Acheulean stages.

The area of the place is 1,665 acres and its population in 1961 was 6,442. It has a post and telegraph office, a hospital, a police station, a public health centre and a family planning clinic. Educational facilities include two Government higher secondary schools, one each for boys and girls, a basic training college and a public library. Weaving and dyeing are the main local industries. A Government rest-house is also located here.

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Khimlasa, tahsil Khurai.—A town, situated in 24° 10'N and 78° 20'E, is 41 miles north-west of Sagar and 12 miles from Etawa on the Etawa-Malthone road. Khimlasa is said to have been founded by a Muhammadan noble and was a *mahal* in the *sarkar* of Raisen of the *subah* of Malwa. Afterwards it was held by Anup Singh, the Raja of Panna. In 1778 Col. Goddard's army marching to south passed through this place. It was the headquarters of the Khurai tahsil up to 1834 and of the Khurai-Khimlasa Pargana which contained 175 villages with an area of 286 sq. miles.

The town of Khimlasa is enclosed within a fortified wall built of stone rubble more or less coursed. It is about 20 feet high and is now in a dilapidated condition. In the centre of the town is a bastioned fort of which the gateways alone form an interesting feature. On one side of the fort is the *dargah* of the Panch Pirs, with an elaborately carved perforated screen work, which deserves a special mention. The structure, measuring 28 feet 8 inches square stands on a plinth of plain coursed stone work with a simple coping. Describing this monument J. F. Blackiston states:

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The area of the village is 1,635 acres and in 1961 its population was 2,363. The village has a police station, a branch post office, and a forest inspection house. Educational facilities include a Janapada middle school. A Government rest house is located here. A weekly *hat* meets every Saturday.

Nariaoli (Naryauli), tahsil Sagar.– A village, situated in 23° 50′N and 78°35′ E, 12 miles from Sagar on the Khurai road, it the first railway station from Sagar on the railway line towards Bina. Recent explorations have revealed two groups of rock shelters with paintings in red ochre. They represent domestic and battle scenes and horse riding, proving it to be a prehistoric site. In the vicinity of Nariaoli, at a distance of 5 miles, stands a Jain temple at Gohurwara built in 1630 A. D. It has an inscription which gives date of its erection and name of the builder. In the Rising of 1842, it was looted by the Bundela insurgents from north. Later in July 1857, the Raja of Banpur took a very strong position at Nariaoli, and on the 25th his troops advanced on the Sagar cantonment and fired on the out-houses of Artillery Barracks, and then returned. On the 17th September, they again made an attack on the Rahatgarh gate of Sagar city, and after firing a few shots at the sentries, retired.

Next day, a detachment commanded by Col. Dalyell of the 42nd advanced on Nariaoli, along with two hundred Custom *Chaprasis*. An engagement took place near the fort situated on a hill. but as the place was found too strong, the British force returned without success. Col. Dalyell was killed and Lieut- Prior, the Executive Engineer, was wounded.

The area of the village is 2,911 acres and its pupulation in 1961 was 1611. Pottery and Bidi-making are the two main local industries. It has a branch post office, a police station, a dispensary and a maternity and child welfare centre. Educational facilities comprise two primary schools, a junior basic school and a rural library.

Pali, tahsil Sagar.- A village, situated in 23° 57'N and 24° 30'E, is 19 miles from Sagar on Khurai road. It has a Shiva temple built during the time of the Chandellas. The upper part of the temple is broken and an image of Shiva-Parvati lies outside which was, perhaps, the original image in the temple where a modern linga is now installed The ceiling is plain but the gateway is beautifully carved. The exterior walls are decorated with the sculptures of gods and godesses of the Hindu pantheon. The area of the village is 1,405 acres and its population in 1961 was 266. Wheat and gram are the main crops.

Pithoria, tahsil Khurai.– A village situated in 24° 00'N and 78° 30'E, is 12 miles north-west of Sagar. The village is an old one as a five-line stone incription dated V. S. 993 (A. D. 936) refers to Mahatavideva (a name of Shiva). The first line begins with a salutation to the goddess Ambika. Formerly it was the headquarters of an estate known as Pithoria *jagir* comprising 26 villages with an area of 51 sq. miles. The estate was awarded to Rao Ramchandra Rao of Deori when the latter place was transferred to Sindhia in 1818. It contains an old fort and remains of a Kalachuri temple with images of Ganesa, Siva, Nandi and Narsimha. There is a large tank located here. The area is 1, 328 acres and its population in 1961 was 1,473. Bangle making is the main industry It has a branch post office, a middle school, and a girls primary school.

Rahatgarh, tahsil Sagar.--A small town, situated in 23° 35'N and 78° 20' E, is 25 miles west of Sagar and 73 miles north-east of Bhopal, and lies at the foot of an ancient citadel renowned for its battlemented ramparts, its gates and its ruins of palaces, temples and mosques. It is picturesquely situated on the steep bank of the river Bina which is crossed at this point by a fine bridge of fourteen arches, completed in 1863 at a cost of Rs. 56,000. Rahatgarh has historical traditions dating back to eleventh century A D. A fragmentary stone

inscription of eleventh century A.D. refers to the Uparahada *mandala* of the Paramara king Jaisinghdeva of Dhar. The Uparahada *mandala* remains unidentified as yet, but it can safely be presumed that Rahatgarh lay well within the domain of the Paramara rulers. Later it is mentioned as one of the *garhas* in the Garha Mandla kingdom comprising 350 villages. After the heroic end of the valiant Gond queen Durgavati, Chandrashah, an uncle of ill-starred Bir Singh, ceded it to the Mughal Emperor in lieu of his claims to the throne. Aurangzeb granted it to a Mughal grandee of his court. Later still, it came into the possession of Sultan Muhammad Khan, a claimant to the *masnad* of Bhopal, who having been defeated by Diwan Bijal Ram in 1742, fled to Rahatgarh where he was welcomed by the governor of the fort. The Bhopal army laid seige to the fort but Mamola Bibi, the widow of the Nawab Yar Muhammad Khan, sought a cessation of the family feuds and Rahatgarh with surrounding districts was made over to Sultan Muhammad in a jagir, on his undertaking to renounce all claims to the chiefship. In 1799 Amir Ali, the Pindari chief sacked Rahatgarh and an interesting account of this is available in Malcolm's *Memoir of Central India*. The Nawabs of Garhi Ambapani, as the family of Sultan Muhammad was called, held Rahatgarh till 1807 when the fort and the town was annexed by Sindhia. It was then the chief town of a pargana yielding a revenue of ten thousand rupees. It passed under the management of the British in 1826, to defray the expenses of a contingent of troops and was finally ceded in 1861. In the Uprising of 1857 it was taken possession of by Fazl Muhammad Khan, a descendent of Nawab of Garhi Ambapani, with the help of a resolute band of *Vilayaties*. He succeeded in establishing his authority by levying taxes and inflicting dire punishments on persons suspected of complicity with the British. When Sir Hugh Rose arrived before this fort on the morning of 24th January, he found rebels lining the stream and well entrenched in the town. After a brisk skirmish the British columns completely invested the place. The besiegers' guns kept a ceaseless fire on the fort. Just when a large breach was made at 10 p.m. on January 28, the Raja of Banpur advanced at the head of a large force for the relief of the garrison. His troops, however, retired after a short struggle. This failure dismayed them so much that the garrison fled by an ancient sally port and a hole dug under the parapet to the south-west. On 20th morning, rebels were pursued and the British troops succeeded in capturing nearly one hundred insurgents including several leaders. The capture of the fort was followed by a cruel retribution. On 30th, Fazl Muhammad's dead body was hung on the gates side by side with that of Kamadar Khan. Inside the fort were found great stores of salt and grain, sufficient for a year's consumption, a few camels, cattle and several horses; two of them belonging to Muhammad Fazl Khan, one with a silver bridle; a mould for casting cannon and shot; and immense mass of correspondence.

The town has a few archaeological remains of note in various stages of decay. Close to the town stands the famous fort of Rahatgarh. Its outer wall consists of 26 enormous towers, some of which were used as dwellings connected by curtain walls and enclosing a space of 66 acres. The ascent to it is by means of a long winding path defended by outworks and five gates in succession before the interior of the fort can be reached. The last gate leads to the courtyard of a palace called Badal Mahal or the "Cloud Palace" from its great height and elevated situation. It is attributed to one of the Raj Gond chiefs of Garha Mandla. Another high tower is called Jogan Burj or 'Executioner's Tower' as prisoners were hurled down from it on the pointed rocks of the Bina river below. Nearby is a fine arched mosque in a moderate state of repairs. There is a large and deep tank dug out of a solid rock; the descent is by steep and dangerous looking steps formed of large square blocks of stones which seem to have remained undisturbed since the ancient founders first laid them. Near it is a small building which looks like a temple but is really a memorial tomb to one Haji Ratan, who was much respected by Muslims and Hindus alike. At the north-west corner of the outer wall, which once enclosed building of all descriptions and a bazar in the old days, is a small temple of Mahadeo, erected by Lala Sukh Ram in 1838-44 A.D. It is constructed of cut-stone and is the best specimen of temple architecture in Rahatgarh. There are also few scenic spots along the banks of the Bina which have many wooded reaches in the vicinity. Two miles away from the fort is a waterfall nearly 50 feet high in picturesque surroundings.

The area of the town is 1,237 acres and its population in 1961 was 6,070. The main local industries are bell-making, bangle-making and handloom weaving It has a police station, a sub-post office, a hospital, a public health centre, a family planning clinic and a forest inspection house There is a junior basic school and a village library. Besides a government rest house, a private *sarai* and a *dharmashala* are built here.

Rangir, tahsil Rehli. –A village, situated in 23°35′N and 78° 50′ E, 10 miles from Rehli and 21 miles from Sagar on Sagar-Rehli road on the bank of the Dehar river. It was the site of an enagagement between Chhatrasal Bundela and Khaliq, the Mughal *Fauzdar* of Dhamoni. When this region passed into the hands of the Maratha Subahadar Govind Rao Pundit, he located his headquarters first at Rangir. On an adjoining hill stands a temple of Harsiddhi Devi in whose honour fairs are held in the months of Asvina and Chaitra. The Chaitra fair is an important one, and about 30,000 persons visit the temple. The image of the goddess is held in great veneration and

people believe that she changes her form thrice every day, as a child at dawn, a young girl at mid-day and an old woman in the evening. The area of the village is 484 acres and its population according to the Census of 1961 was 167. A government rest house is located here.

Rehli, tahsil Rehli.—It is the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name, situated in 23°35′ N and 79°00′ E, at the junction of the Sonar and Dehar rivers, about 26 miles south-east of Sagar by which it is connected by a metalled road. Rehli is traditionally said to have been populated by Fauladi Ahirs in the 14th century, and was afterwards included in the dominion of Chhatrasal Bundela, who ceded it to Peshwa Bajirao in 1731. It was taken possession of by Major Rose in March 1818. In 1857 it was held by Bundela rebels. On 2nd October, the Deputy Commissioner of Sagar sent a hundred sepoys of the 31st Bengal Infantry, to recover Rehli, but before they arrived the fort had been recovered through the treachery of a local inhabitant, named Girdhari Naik, who was made *Killedar* of the fort. On the 13th Rehli was again attacked by the mutineers from Garhakota, but Lieut. Dickens managed to hold it till the advance of Sir Hugh Rose.

The fort, picturesquely situated above the Sonar river, was built by the Marathas or, as some say, by the Ahirs and later completed by the Marathas. It is partially in ruins, and the space enclosed within it, nearly two acres in extent, is covered with the remains of the Maratha buildings. Rehli itself has a few fine temples, and in the suburbs of Pandhalpur, about a mile distant, is a temple of Pandrinath built 200 years ago. In Gopalpur, 3 miles south of Rehli, there is an old temple of Tikhi Toria erected by Gopal Rao of Rehli. The only object of architectural importance here is a fragment of the plinth of an older temple. The recent explorations in the valley of the Sonar, particularly at Rehli and Ghogra, have yielded twenty-five implements *in situ* from a highly-cemented gravel-bed of Abbevillian to Mid-Acheulean stages.

The area of the place is 1,665 acres and its population in 1961 was 6,442. It has a post and telegraph office, a hospital, a police station, a public health centre and a family planning clinic. Educational facilities include two Government higher secondary schools, one each for boys and girls, a basic training college and a public library. Weaving and dyeing are the main local industries. A Government rest-house is also located here.

Sagar Town, tahsil Sagar.—It is the headquarters of the district and tahsil of the same name in Madhya Pradesh, situated in 23° 50'N and 78° 45'E, and a station on the Bina-Katni section of the Central Railways, 654 miles from Bombay and 133 from Bhopal. The town is picturesquely built on spurs of the Vindhyan hills which surround the lake on three sides, and reach an elevation of about 2,000 feet. It is an important military station and had a population of 1,04,676 in 1961 including the cantonment (19,185 persons).

Recent archaeological discoveries show that Sagar and its environs was the home of Palaeolithic Man. It is supposed to be the 'Agara' (Sagara) of Ptolemy. The present name is derived from *Sagar* signifying a lake or lacustrade, round which it is built The first settlement on the present site of Sagar was made in 1660 by Udan Shah, a lineal descendant of Nihar Shah, who built a fort on the site of the present one and found a village close to it called 'Parkota', now part of the town. It was, then, governed from Garhpahra, which was the capital of a principality. Subsequently, in the Eighteenth Century it fell to the Nawab of Kurwai but was taken from him by Govind Rao Pandit, a Maratha Subedar who was assigned this tract by Baji Rao I. He fixed his headquarters at Sagar, built the fort on the site of an old one erected by the Dangis, and greatly improved and beautified the town, which rapidly increased in importance under his administration, and became the capital of the surrounding country. Sagar was twice sacked by Amir Khan, the Pindari Chief. In 1814 Sindhia plundered Sagar, making Vinayak Rao a prisoner and releasing him on payment of Rs. 75,000. In July 1857, the Sagar town was threatened by bands of rebels and the British garrison was forced to take shelter in the fort. The subsequent events have been told earlier in this narrative.

The most noteworthy monument is the fort standing on an eminence to the north-west of the lake and consisting of 20 round towers, about 20 to 40 feet in height and connected by curtain walls, in the shape of a quadrangle, 400 yards long and 150 wide. It now houses the Police Training College Near the fort, to the north, is a road crossing called 'Teen Batti' on account of three sided lamp post standing there. Adjoining it towards further north is the Katra Bazar, the most crowded part of the city. The second road at the crossing leads to Nariaoli *naka* which forms the westernmost limit of the city. On this road as one proceeds ahead he finds the city Kotwali, and then the temple of Lakshminarayan Further beyond is the Barra Bazar, a busy shopping centre. Closeby in a lane forming a narrow curve is the Sarafa bazar, the place where bullion trade is carried on. The third road passing along the lake and the

ghats, past the power house, leads towards a hill containing a cluster of buildings housing the government offices. The Collector's office, a large one-storied structure supported by massive pillars, was constructed in 1820 as the residence of the Governor-General's Agent. The building, which accommodates the tahsil offices now, formerly housed a mint, later removed to Calcutta. Near it, at a distance of about three furlongs, stands the Patharia hill on which are situated the University buildings commanding a panoramic view of the valley with trees dotted all round. Sagar is a city of beautiful temples built after both the mediaeval and the modern styles of architecture. The notable Hindu temples are those of Radhakrishna, the Ganga temple, of Jankiraman, and a temple of Chitragupta, the tutelary deity of the Kayasthas, which is one of the few in existence. The magnificent temple of Vrindavanbagh, built by Rani Laxmi Bai of Jhansi in 1798 A.D., attracts thousands of devotees from within and outside the city. Two mosques with high minarets are situated in Katra and Sanichari. A church built in the Gothic style stands in the cantonment. One of the greatest attractions of the city is the Chakraghat, provided with flights of steps. It is a beautiful spot from where the view of the lake is enchanting. In the compound of the old artillery mess-house lie a few Kalachuri sculptures, built into small imitation kiosks. Although industrially Sagar ranks much below other towns of the State, it has begun to show some signs of increasing commercial activities and there are a few big Bidi-making firms in the city. It is also a great educational centre as the seat of Saugar University, and contains several schools owned by the government as well as private bodies. The city has a good system of power and water supply. It has also a telephone exchange. A government rest house and circuit house are situated here.

Sanoda, tahsil Sagar.—A village, situated in 23°50′ N and 78° 50′E, is on the Damoh road. The place was captured by Major Lamb in March 1818. There is a small fort here which was used in 1857 by rebels to store their supplies in their fight against the alien rule. Capt. Hare captured the fort with the help of the Hyderabad contingent, and subsequently it was dismantled. A French traveller Louis Rousselet, who visited it on April 20, 1824, has left an account of this place. He writes: "After a long march we encamped this morning on the banks of Beosi, a charming river, whose limpid waters flow between high narrow banks hung with verdure. Near our tents the Beosi was spanned by a fine suspension bridge thirteen feet in width and two hundred and fifty feet long, being the first specimen of the kind built in India. To Presgrave, the engineer who was entrusted with its construction in 1828, belongs the singular credit of having accomplished the delicate

work with the aid of native workmen alone, and of employing only the iron of the country. I must add that this district possesses in great abundance a very rich species of ore, lying on the surface of the earth, and from which is produced iron the most valued in all India; and we may well be surprised that this source of wealth should never yet have been turned to account."[1] The bridge no longer exists as it was destroyed in the floods of 1944.

The area of the village is 4,792 acres. Basket and clay pot manufacturing and bidi-making are the chief local industries. It has a police station, a branch post office, a middle school, a gram panchayat and a nyaya panchayat. A religious fair is held every year in January which attracts a large number of people.

Shahgarh, tahsil Banda.—A village, situated in 20° 15'N and 79° 05'E, is 43 miles north-east of Sagar on Kanpur road. It stands on the right bank of the Lanch river at the foot of a lofty range of hills covered by forest. The village belonged originally to the Gond rulers in the 15th century in whose days it was a *garha* containing 750 villages. It then came into the possession of Chhatrasal Bundela who posted a *Killedar* here. Chhatrasal bequeathed it to his son Hirde Shah who died in 1739 A. D. One of his younger sons, Prithviraj, acquired it with the help of Baji Rao Peshwa. When Ahmed Shah Abdali attacked India in 1759, a force of 5,000 persons is said to have been sent from Shahgarh to help the Marathas in their crusade against the invaders. Sleeman, who came here in 1835, has left an account of the Shahgarh State and its ruler in his *Rambles and Recollections*. "Takht Singh, the younger brother of Arjun Singh, the Raja of Shahgarh, came out several miles to meet me on his elephant. Finding me on horseback, he got off from his elephant, and mounted his horse, and we rode on till we met the Raja himself, about a mile from our tents. He was on horseback, and with a large and splendidly dressed train of followers, all mounted on fine sleek horses, bred in the Raja's own stables. He was mounted on a snow-white steed of his own breeding (and I have rarely seen a finer animal), and dressed in a light suit of silver brocade made to represent the scales of steel armour surmounted by a gold turban. Takht Singh was more plainly dressed, but is a much finer and more intelligent-looking man Having escorted us to our tents, they took their leave, and returned to their own, which were pitched on a rising ground on the other side of a small stream, half a mile distant. Takht Singh resides here in a very pretty fortified castle on an eminence It is a square building, with a round bastion at each corner, and one on each face, rising into towers above the walls.

1. Louis Rousselet, India and its Native Princes, P. 394.

"A little after mid-day the Raja and his brother came to pay us a visit, and about four O' clock I went to return it, accompanied by Lieutenant Thomas. As usual, he had a *nautch* (dance) upon carpets, spread upon the sward under ownings in front of the pavilion in which we were received. While the women were dancing and singing, a very fine panther was brought in to be shown to us. He has been caught, full-grown, two years before, and, in the hands of a skilful man, was fit for the chase in six months."[1] Arjun Singh's nephew, Bakhat Bali, who had a force of 150 cavalry and 800 infantry, joined the Great Uprising of 1857. He helped Tatya Tope in an attack on Charkhari, and was later invited to join the government set up by Nana Sahib at Gwalior.

While on his way to Gwalior, Bakhat Bali was captured on 28th September, 1858, and was sent as a state prisoner to Lahore, where he was kept in a building called 'Hakim Rai Ki Haveli' in Mori Darwaza. His state was confiscated and parts of it are now included in Damoh, Sagar and Jhansi districts. Raja Bakhat Bali died at Vindraban on 29th September, 1873. Shahgarh became the headquarters of the Pargana to which it gave its name comprising 115 villages with an area of 300 sq. miles. Shahgarh has a few historical relics. There are two temples built by Arjun Singh, the larger one contains a frieze of mural painting. Besides, there are four tombs and a mausoleum of the members of the royal family.

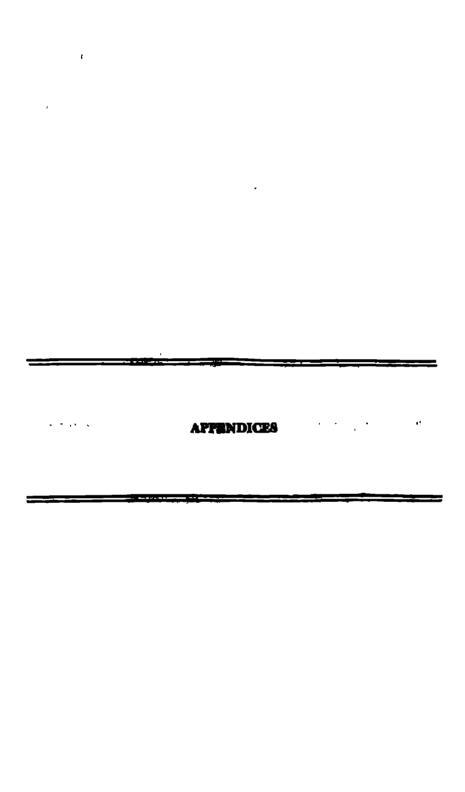
There used to be some deposits of iron ore in the vicinity, which was smelted by indigenous methods in Shahgarh and neighbouring villages. This, however, is now of little significance. A good soft stone is also found from which cups and mortars are made and the local pottery enjoys a reputation. An earthen pot-making training centre has also been opened here. The area is 3,720 acres with a population of 3,340 persons in 1961. The village has a branch post office, a police station, an *ayurvedic* dispensary, a block development office, Deputy Ranger's office, a gram panchayat and a nyaya panchayat. Educational facilities include a higher secondary school, a junior basic school, a girls middle school and a rural library. A fair is held on Shivratri for a week which is attended by 3,000 people. A weekly market meets on every Saturday. A government rest-house is also located here.

Tinsua, tahsil Banda.— A small village, lying in 23° 55'N and 78° 50'E, is 28 miles north-east of Sagar with an area of 844 acres and a population of 349 persons in 1961. Closeby is a hill called Trismal, with an elevation of 2,139 feet, and on it stands an old

1. Sleeman, Op. cit., pp. 114-15.

temple with carved stones attributed to the Chandellas. The tutelary deity of the hill is worshipped as Trismal Baba, and is believed to be compassionate towards the thirsty wayfarers for whom he causes pools of limpid water appear among the rocks. The village has a fuller's earth quarry. A fair is held on the last day of Vaisakha which is attended by about 1,000 persons.

Uldan, tahsil Banda.— A village, situated in 24° 00'N and 78° 45'E, is 10 miles from Banda at the Junction of Dhasan and Bhander rivers. Its importance lies in a large religious fair held on Makar Sankranti for a duration of four days, and at which about 12,000 people assemble from the neighbouring districts. It commemorates the local manifestation of Shiva, who appeared in a stone, and was recognised by a Kachhi who poured water on it. On one occasion a celebrated Mahant came to the village, and on seeing the Kachhi pouring water on the stone, he asked people why he did so. They said he was crazy and on hearing this the Kachhi took five flowers of the Kachhnar tree (*Bauhinia Variegata*) in his hands, and changed them into five bottles of water which he poured into a dry well, with the result that the well immediately over-flowed with water. The Kachhi said that it would continue to flow until touched by a human hand. It appears that some one must have touched it with his hand as the well is now completely dry. A temple, however, has been constructed with the stone placed in it. Several blind persons and lepers are said to have been healed by it, and barren women are reported to have had children born to them. The area of the village is 2,369 acres and its population in 1961 was 751. It has a Janapada primary school and a gram panchayat. The headquarters of the patwari circle is also located here.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX—A

TABLES

1. Normals and Extremes of Rainfall.
2. Frequency of Annual Rainfall.
3. Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity
4. Mean Wind Speed. ...
5. Special Weather Phenomena.
6. Land Utilization.
7. Tahsil-wise Land Utilization.
8. Area Under Principal Crops.
9. Tahsil-wise Area Under Principal Crops.
10. Production of Principal Crops.
11. Net Area Under Irrigation (According to Modes of Irrigation).
12. Agricultural Machinery and Implements.
13. Tahsil-wise Agricultural Machinery and Implements.
14. Live-stock and Poultry Population.
15. Loans Granted from State Funds-Ordinary Taccavi.
16. Advances Sanctioned Under Agriculturists Loans Act—Grow More Food Scheme.
17. Advances Sanctioned under Land Improvement Loans Act—Grow More Food Schemes.
18. Taccavi Granted Under C.D /N E S. Schemes.
19. Subsidy Granted Under Land Improvement Loans Act Agriculturists Loans Act.
20. Remissions Sanctioned out of the Taccavi Loans.
21. Collection of National Defence Fund by 28th February, 1963.
22. Small Savings Scheme.

APPENDIX—B

1. List of Fairs and Melas.
2. Conversion Tables.

TABLE—I

Normals and Extremes of Rainfall

Station (1)	No. of years of data (2)		Jan. (3)	Feb. (4)	March (5)	April (6)	May (7)	June (8)	July (9)	August (10)
Saugor	50	a	20.1	12.7	8.9	6.1	9.9	127.0	416.8	372.9
		b	1.8	1.3	0.9	0.6	1.1	7.4	16.7	15.5
Khurai	50	a	19.3	11.7	6.1	3.8	8.9	118.9	417.6	376.7
		b	1.7	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.7	6.8	16.0	15.5
Rehli	50	a	20.6	14.5	12.7	5.8	12.5	143.5	391.9	348.0
		b	1.5	1.6	1.1	0.7	2.3	7.6	15.8	14.3
Banda	50	a	20.6	11.2	10.7	5.1	9.4	109.5	363.5	
		b	1.7	1.2	0.8	0.4	0.9	6.3	15.5	
Garhakota	50	a	38.1	11.9	12.2	5.6	7.6	166.6	408.4	339.3
		b	2.9	1.3	1.2	0.6	0.9	8.6	17.1	14.4
Deori	34	a	21.1	13.2	6.1	6.3	15.2	161.5	441.7	414.8
		b	2.0	1.4	0.6	0.9	1.3	8.9	17 9	15.9
Chandia Nallah	23	a	28.5	16.5	10.4	2.0	2.0	120.1	446.5	364.2
		b	1.7	1.2	0.7	0.3	0.2	5.1	17.0	15.2
Majgahan Hansraj ..	24	a	24.1	17.3	12.2	5.8	8.9	124.5	444.3	377.4
		b	2.2	1.7	0.9	0.5	0.5	6.9		15.9
Saugor (District) ..		a	24.1	13.6	9.9	5.1	9.3	133.9	416.3	372.5
		b	1.9	1.3	0.9	0.6	0.9	7.2	16.6	15.1

Contd..........

Contd .

	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual	Highest annual Rainfall as % of normal and year **	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal and year **	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours	
								Amount (m. m.)	Date
(1)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
Saugor	195.8	27.2	23.4	8.6	1229.4	178(1934)	48(1913)	284.5	1904 July 10
	9.7	1.9	1.1	0.7	58.7				
Khurai	194.6	23.4	18.0	7.4	1206.4	174(1919)	46(1905)	310.6	1919 July 10
	8.8	1 6	1.1	0.7	55.0				
Rehli	174.7	29 2	19.6	8.6	1181.6	146(1944)	62(1913)	223.5	1942 July 27
	8.9	1.9	1.0	0.7	56.4				
Banda	178.8	26.4	20.3	9.7	1104.5	167(1934)	48(1905)	235.2	1904 July 10
	8.3	1.6	1.1	0.7	52.5				
Garhakota	170.4	38.9	22.9	8.4	1277.3	131(1944)	67(1941)	183.6	1942 Aug. 13
	9.1	1.7	1.0	0.8	59.6				
Deori	187.0	37 1	16.5	8.1	1330.6	127(1944)	58(1932)	224.0	1943 July 20
	10.0	2.4	1.0	0.8	63.1				
Chandia Nallah . ..	221.5	31.0	31.0	10.7	1284.4	145(1942)	65(1928)	312.4	1939 July 14
	8.5	1.6	1.2	7.0	53.4				
Majgahan Hansraj	190 7	30.7	19.8	8.9	1264.6	146(1934)	43(1941)	205.7	1952 June 21
	9.2	1 8	1.0	0.9	58.3				
Saugor (District) ..	189 4	30.5	21 4	8.8	1234.8	144(1934)	52(1913)	..	—
	9 1	1.8	1.1	0.7	57.2				

Note.—(a) Normal Rainfall in mm. (b) Average number of rainy days(days with rain of 2 6 mm or more . *Based on all available data up to 1953
** Years given in brackets.

TABLE—II

Frequency of Annual Rainfall in the District

(Data 1901—1950)

Range in mm	No. of years	Range in mm	No. of years
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
601–700	2	1201–1300	7
701–800	2	1301–1400	7
801-900	2	1401–1500	3
901–1000	4	1501.1600	4
1001–1100	8	1601–1700	0
1101–1200	9	1701–1800	2

TABLE—III

Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity

Month	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature	Mean Daliy Minimum Temperature	Highest Maximum ever Recorded	
	°/C	°/C	°/C	Date
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
January ..	24.7	11.3	31.7	1912, Jan. 31
February ..	26.9	13.2	35.0	1953, Feb. 28
March ..	32.6	18.3	41.1	1892, Mar. 28
April ..	37.6	23.2	43.9	1896 Apr. 28
May ..	40.4	26.5	45.6	1914, May 29
June ..	36.9	25.7	45.6	1897, June 11
July ..	29.8	23.3	41.1	1931, July 1
August ..	28.6	22.6	35.6	1899, Aug. 11
September	30.1	21.9	38.3	1881, Sep. 29
October ..	31.1	19.1	37.8	1899. Oct. 10
November ..	27.8	14.7	34.4	1909. Nov. 3
December	24.9	11.8	31.7	1896. Dec, 3
Annual ..	30.9	19.3	..	..

Contd.

Contd.

Month	Lowest minimum ever recorded		Relative Humidity *	
			0830	1750
(1)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
	°/C	Date	%	%
January ..	1.7	1934, Jan. 13	53	40
February ..	1.1	1919, Feb. 1	44	29
March ..	7.2	1898, Mar. 3	30	18
April ..	10.2	1926, Apr. 8	24	14
May	17.8	1920, May 15	28	15
June	18.3	1822, June 3	57	47
July ..	16.1	1904, Jul. 11	84	79
August ..	19.4	1956, Aug. 23	86	80
September	16.7	1926, Sep. 30	80	69
October ..	11.7	1890, Oct. 31	54	40
November ..	6.1	1926, Nov. 20	46	34
December	4.4	1926, Dec. 27	51	35
Annual ..	..	..	53	42

* Hours I. S. T.

TABLE IV

Mean Wind Speed

(In Kn.)

Jan. (1)	Feb. (2)	March (3)	April (4)	May (5)	June (6)	July (7)
13.4	14.2	16.1	16.9	18.8	20.0	20.8

Aug. (8)	Sept. (9)	Oct. (10)	Nov. (11)	Dec. (12)	Annual (13)
18.7	15.3	11.6	11.1	11.7	15.7

TABLE—V

Special Weather Phenomena

Mean No. of days with	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Thunder ..	2.2	2.5	1.9	2.1	3.3	5.8
Hail ..	0	0.3	0	0.2	0	0
Dust-Storm ..	0	0	0	0	0.3	0
Fog ..	1.6	0.3	0	0	0	0
Squall ..	0	0	0	0	0	0

Mean No. of days with	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
(1)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
Thunder	6.1	3.4	4.1	0 3	0.1	0.5	32.3
Hail ..	0.4	0	0	0	0	0.1	1.0
Dust-Storm	0	0	0	0.1	0	0	0.4
Fog	0	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.5	2.5
Squall	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

TABLE—VI

Land Utilization

(In Acres)

Year	Total Geographical Area: According to Surveyor General of India	Total Geographical Area: According to Village Papers	Forests	Not Available for Cultivation	Culturable Waste	Permanent Pastures and Grazing Lands	Miscellaneous Tree Crops and Groves	Fallow Lands	Net Area Sown	Area Sown More than Once	Total Cropped Area
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1915-16	25,54,899	25,23,840	4,79,233	1,27,671	8,70,307	Figures not available included in Cols. 5 and 6		59,751	9,86, 878	21,258	10,08,136
1916-17	25,54,899	25,25,281	4,79,084	1,27,827	8,71,175	"	"	88,605	9,58,590	37,089	9,95,679
1917-18	25,54,899	25,25,335	4,78,985	1,27,177	8,89,899	"	"	1,71,069	8,58,205	19,957	8,78,162
1918-19	25,54,899	25,25,034	4.79,012	1,27,155	8.95,133	"	"	1,22,453	9,01,281	10,574	9,11,855
1919-20	25,54,899	25,25,046	4,79,012	1,27,137	9,13,580	"	"	99,901	9,05,416	21,628	9,27,044
1920-21	25,54,899	25,25,048	4,79,012	1,27,166	9,29,523	"	"	72,836	9,16,511	12,875	9,29,386
1921-22	25,54,899	25,25,054	4.79,009	1,27,143	9,28,657	"	"	73,919	9,16,326	20,028	9,36,354
1922-23	25,54,899	25,25,053	4,79,009	1,27,047	9,18,633	"	"	70,136	9,30,228	22,709	9,52,937
1923-24	25,54,899	25,26,018	4,79,974	1,27,036	9,15,514	"	"	82,593	9,20,901	20,816	9,41,717
1924-25	25,54,899	25,26,018	4,79,974	1,27,017	9,03,355	"	"	79,914	9,35,758	22,264	9,53,022
1925-26	25,54,899	25,26,056	4,80,013	1.24,284	9,08,649	"	"	95,543	9,17,567	23,953	9,41.520

Contd..............

Land utabiation—for which place Distuice if so add Distu'ct

Contd.

(In Acres)

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1926-27	25,54,899	25,26,049	4,80,013	1,25,038	9,08,584	Figures not available Included in Cols 5. and 6		85,111	9,27,303	20,896	9,48,198
1927-28	25,54,899	25,26,053	4,80,013	1,24,957	9,02,493	„	„	69,164	9,49,426	42,810	9,92,236
1928-29	24,91,424	25,26,053	4,80,013	1,24,146	9,02,587	„	„	63,992	9,55,315	53,231	10,08,546
1929-30	24,91,424	25,26,053	4,80,013	1,24,059	9,07,476	„	„	1,56,941	8,57,564	15,431	8,72,995
1930-31	25,54,899	25,26,053	4,80,013	1,24,429	9,04,496	„	„	1,13,020	9,04,095	23,159	9,27,254
1931-32	Figures not available	25,26,053	4,80,013	1,24,478	9,06,767	„	„	1,18,550	8,96,245	42,359	9,38,604
1932-33	„	25,28,128	4,82,105	1,24,404	9,31,035	„	„	1,07,766	8,82,818	24,987	9,07,805
1933-34 ..	„	25,27,624	4,81,602	1,24,381	9,31,086	„	„	84,222	9,06,333	35,286	9,41,619
1934-35	„	25,27,623	4,81,601	1,24,435	9,41,781	„	„	89,629	8,90,177	42,921	9,33,098
1935-36	„	25,27,623	4,81,601	1,24,448	9,39,845	„	„	77,723	9,04,006	32,128	9,36,134
1936-37	„	25,27,618	4,81,601	1,24,416	9,31,266	„	„	64,251	9,26,084	55,730	9,81,814
1937-38	„	25,27,553	4,81,920	1,24,397	9,25,764	„	„	64,695	9,30,777	28,812	9,59,589
1938-39	„	25,27,258	4,81,601	1,24,364	6,64,121	2,54,275	Figures not available Included in Cols. 5-7	60,175	9,42,722	32,337	9,75,059
1939-40	„	25,27,258	4,81,601	1,24,308	6,53,146	2,54,867	„	67,139	9,46,167	23,510	9,69,707
1940-41	„	25,27,250	4,81,601	1,24,261	6,39,311	2,55,440	„	54,510	9,72,127	30,516	10,02,643

....Contd.

Contd.......

(In Acres)

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1941-42	Figures not available	25,27,321	4,81,601	1,24,276	6,19,961	2,56,187	Figures not available Included in Cols.5-7	49,846	9,95,450	17,877	10,13,327
1942-43	,,	25,27,321	4,81,601	1,24,259	6,14,702	2,56,142	,,	92,642	9,57,975	27,303	9,85,278
1943-44	,,	25,27,321	4,81,601	1,23,970	5,95,288	2,56,249	,,	80,327	9,89,886	51,513	10,41,399
1944-45	,,	25,27,321	4,81,601	1,24,124	5,96,584	2,56,570	,,	1,15,927	9,32,515	34,458	9,86,973
1945-46	,,	25,27,321	4,81,601	1,24,053	6,10,206	2,56,574	,,	1,33,586	9,21,301	25,886	9,47,187
1946-47	,,	25,27,321	4,81,601	1,24,045	6,18,077	2,56,458	,,	1,17,290	9,29,850	45,730	9,75,580
1947-48	,,	25,27,321	4,81,601	1,24,000	6,38,482	2,56,254	,,	1,32,287	8,94,697	29,929	9,24,626
1948-49	,,	25,28,321	4,81,601	1,24,223	6,42,398	2,56,942	,,	99,544	9,23,613	58,041	9,81,654
1949-50	,,	25,30,700	4,81,601	1,23,417	6,36,613	2,58,120	,,	96,414	9,34,535	40,882	9,75,417
1950-51	,,	25,31,441	4,81,601	1,23,300	6,33,806	2,58,058	,,	83,264	9,51,412	22,795	9,74,207
1951-52	,,	25,30,700	7,39,113	1,23,367	2,58,484	3,64,806	,,	62,904	9,82,026	21,882	10,03,908
1952-53	,,	25,30,645	7,39,708	1,23,760	2,51,135	3,62,636	,,	51,749	10,01,657	20,449	10,22,106
1953-54	,,	25,30,700	7,38,878	1,39,128	2,54,368	2,55,065	25,632	66,519	10,51,110	19,525	10,70,635
1954-55	,,	25,30,700	7,39,357	1,35,732	2,38,736	2,52,132	24,913	58,262	10,81,568	24,595	11,06,163
1955-56	,,	25,30,700	7,36,862	1,33,795	2,20,741	2,65,755	22,969	65,868	10,84,71[illegible]	29,115	11,13,825
1956-57	,,	25,30,700	7,30,685	1,27,421	1,99,344	2,96,673	20,103	70,922	10,85,552	35,967	11,21,519
1957-58	25,35,046	25,30,700	7,30,583	1,24,854	1,84,574	4,44,323	18,207	73,647	9,54,512	24,741	9,79,253
1958-59	25,35,046	25,34,730	7,29,800	1,24,287	1,68,118	4,64,431	15,900	69,081	9,69,113	32,721	9,95,894
1959-60	25,35,046	25,34,730	7,30,856	1,23,830	1,43,661	4,85,517	16,486	65,330	9,69,050	33,955	10,03,005
1960-61	25,35,046	25,34,730	7,30,636	1,23,114	1,34,092	4,92,312	15,304	61,055	9,78,187	35,061	10,13,248
1961-62	25,35,046	20,53,419*	2,46,083*	1,25,381	1,17,804	5,12,299	13,148	61,300	9,77,404	39,448	10,16,852

*Excludes Government Reserved Forest area of 4,73,472 acres.

TABLE-VIII

Area Under Principal Crops

(In Acres)

Year (1)	Rice (2)	Jowar (3)	Sesamum (4)	Wheat (5)	Gram (6)	Linseed (7)	Total Cropped Area (8)
At 30 Years' Settlement	10,241	51,563	17,895	4,14,915	49,763	2,758	..
1891-92	21,203	76,166	40,775	5,15,205	67,554	36,314	10,04,916
1892-93	25,578	58,934	49,168	5,60,337	44,400	37,203	10,17,034
At Settlement (1911-16)	25,460	67,577	60,872	4,68,156	1,02,492	51,736	10,20,660
1893-94	24,331	68,934	69,960	5,40,624	71,356	43,304	10,40,671
1894-95	24,922	72,804	86,734	3,20,314	2,05,955	68,122	10,36,843
1895-96	27,418	84,279	61,341	1,73,380	2,91,874	10,106	9,01,232
1896-97	30,216	1,53,278	30,565	98,009	1,64,822	15,076	7,56,157
1897-98	28,255	2,23,811	30,928	1,19,377	95,420	27,581	7,75,750
1898-99	28,551	1,38,580	19,551	1,62,842	1,20,635	25,527	7,16,226
1899-1900	25,723	1,37,107	38,430	1,47,057	1,01,921	28,471	6,92,989
1900-01	18,877	1,75,825	47,747	1,69,217	88,214	19,709	7,40,124
1901-02	21,290	1,08,454	33,496	2,39,644	1,27,064	21,618	7,70,809
1902-03	19,213	1,70,550	58,518	2,17,262	1,03,732	25,416	8,25,671
1903-04	16,500	1,09,559	44,618	2,89,315	93,395	36,050	8,02,431
1904-05	17,754	68,653	27,444	3,32,788	97,292	29,728	7,96,405
1905-06	15,517	1,31,363	41,874	3,26,857	35,586	23,970	8,40,948
1906-07	16,062	1,23,671	59,211	3,43,404	40,172	24,926	8,87,795

Contd......

Contd.........

(In Acres)

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1907-08	15,810	1,04,070	39,056	3,06,106	1,01,375	29,136	8,45,819
1908-09	15,048	1,60,504	35,482	2,68,056	1,10,090	30,644	8,51,976
1909-10	17,497	1,64,044	53,090	3,11,404	96,796	26,821	9,19,802
1910-11	16,727	1,56,032	52,673	3,27,554	97,610	26,998	9,21,275
1911-12	17,816	1,10,774	46,894	3,87,337	33,563	63,664	9,39,620
1912-13	20,296	42,340	16,685	4,64,094	79,798	72,773	9,23,859
1913-14	17,235	42,778	27,973	4,35,548	1,13,560	36,618	8,74,441
1914-15	16,501	1,16,247	37,014	4,05,385	1,03,655	34,194	9,65,427
1915-16	16,707	1,89,304	43,793	4,02,993	66,187	27,900	10,08,136
1916-17	18,501	1,45,054	26,348	4,52,683	79,409	33,533	9,95,679
1917-18	18,725	30,562	11,346	4,73,156	1,00,256	35,452	8,78,162
1918-19	21,634	1,11,068	21,585	3,70,094	1,14,190	22,772	9,11,855
1919-20	23,227	53,550	17,916	4,62,199	1,16,179	31,370	9,27,044
1920-21	23,357	1,18,204	30,584	3,97,368	1,00,887	23,961	9,29,386
1921-22	22,559	1,65,807	36,098	2,70,305	56,964	28,146	9,36,354
1922-23	21,884	1,31,202	23,218	4,14,509	66,393	31,232	9,52,937

Contd.......

Contd.........

(In Acres)

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1923-24	21,391	75,460	12,032	4,55,324	65,821	48,873	9,41,717
1924-25	21,729	57,784	22,409	4,76,467	86,252	44,700	9,58,0[illegible]
1925-26	22,048	27,831	15,608	4,46,397	87,122	37,666	9,41,520
1926-27	21,186	..	15,274	4,85,582	86,034	36,915	9,48,198
1927-28	23,399	80,213	18,220	5,07,686	87,110	36,265	9,92,236
1928-29	23,798	1,75,019	..	2,47,473	1,75,567	47,907	10,08,546
1929-30	23,372	2,15,102	27,526	2,29,271	1,20,074	16,388	8,72,995
1930-31	24,726	2,23,937	..	2,61,026	1,30,230	19,315	9,27,254
1931-32	24,765	90,086	23,913	2,92,052	90,173	25,687	9,38,604
1932-33	25,256	84,824	23,442	4,37,270	95,298	23,253	9,07,805
1933-34	23,824	86,539	28,572	4,75,342	72,612	16,467	9,41,619
1934-35	23,810	40,139	14,695	4,68,780	61,714	7,223	9,33,098
1935-36	25,334	46,011	14,019	4,57,256	54,306	8,319	9,36,134
1936-37	26,479	57,938	16,297	4,90,952	93,582	28,642	9,81,814
1937-38	26,409	59,113	17,571	4,94,611	81,039	33,928	9,59,589
1938-39	27,176	36,562	16,452	5,11,442	67,821	36,873	9,75,059

Contd......

Contd........ (In Acres)

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1939-40	29,357	68,794	20,247	4,95,699	67,735	37,103	9,69,707
1940-41	30,552	80,317	17,205	4,78,792	66,439	48,723	10,02,643
1941-42	31,555	99,182	21,074	4,32,680	94,789	41,050	10,13,327
1942-43	30,161	1,54,098	12,946	3,75,538	93,650	36,894	9,85,278
1943-44	32,829	1,72,949	15,790	3,66,594	1,09,294	50,099	10,41,399
1944-45	34,925	1,18,141	7,430	3,43,683	1,53,120	46,476	9,86,973
1945-46	32,345	1,07,894	7,940	3,50,381	1,39,480	40,309	9,47,187
1946-47	33,110	1,01,123	7,074	4,08,741	1,24,186	35,168	9,75,580
1947-48	33,953	1,29,383	10,018	2,45,761	1,81,948	45,454	9,24,626
1948-49	36,263	1,27,554	9,978	2,58,056	1,98,200	55,916	9,81,654
1949-50	36,500	37,077	9,035	3,94,493	1,43,807	42,608	9,75,417
1950-51	35,291	72,480	9,014	4,46,740	1,10,615	33,888	9,74,207
1951-52	33,788	69,944	11,602	4,63,756	1,09,128	28,287	10,03,908
1952-53	31,731	96,229	20,003	4,29,901	1,01,513	26,415	10,22,106
1953-54	29,675	1,25,500	20,953	4,37,641	89,764	27,953	10,70,635
1954-55	27,583	1,38,698	25,179	4,71,801	85,449	24,670	11,06,163
1955-56	25,503	99,043	22,181	5,65,471	88,511	24,291	11,13,825

Contd........

Contd. (In Acres)

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1956-57	27,642	49,547	7,630	6,23,119	90,857	24,751	11,21,519
1957-58	29,078	80,462	16,646	5,77,491	89,516	18,576	9,79,253
1958-59	31,740	90,661	15,043	5,36,332	90,058	22,833	9,95,834
1959-60	33,152	83,627	11,994	5,63,491	84,179	21,440	10,03,005
1960-61	34,464	77,996	11,079	5,97,261	78,779	18,255	10,13,248
1961-62	35,026	59,673	10,443	6,24,337	80,704	22,563	10,16,852

TABLE—IX

Tahsil-wise Area-Under Principal Crops

(In Acres)

Year and Tahsil	Rice	Jowar	Sesamum	Potato	Gram	Wheat	Linseed
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1958-59							
Sagar	5,326	27,540	3,148	1,123	26,876	1,64,171	10,919
Khurai	3,010	19,486	682	53	26,089	2,12,560	1,356
Rehli	14,617	25,078	7,292	118	29,674	95,796	8,703
Banda	8,362	18,352	3,921	208	7,419	63,579	1,855
Forest Villages	425	205	..	..	..	226	..
Total district	31,740	90,661	15,043	1,502	90,058	5,36,332	22,833
1959-60							
Sagar	5,919 (17.85)	27,203 (32.53)	2,311 (19.28)	1,156 (71.29)	21,321 (25.33)	1,63,185 (28.96)	10,867 (50.69)
Khurai	3,189 (9.61)	17,702 (21.17)	536 (4.47)	59 (3.64)	27,978 (33.24)	2,21,956 (39.39)	1,311 (6.11)
Rehli	14,706 (44.36)	23,112 (27.63)	5,880 (49.02)	142 (8.75)	27,669 (32.87)	1,09,718 (10.47)	6,882 (32.10)
Banda	8,913 (26.89)	15,405 (18.42)	3,267 (27.24)	266 (16.39)	7,211 (9.57)	68,406 (12.14)	2,380 (11.10)
Forest Villages	425 (1.88)	205 (0.25)	..	..	..	226 (0.04)	..
Total district	33,152	83,627	11,994	1,623	84,179	5,63,491	21,440

Note:—Figures in brackets show the percentages of the total cropped area under each crop.

TABLE—X

Production of Principal Crops

(In Thousand Tons)

Year	Rice	Jowar	Sesamum	Wheat	Gram	Linseed
1955-56	7.4	14.5	1.0	115.3	17.7	2.3
1956-57	5.1	6.6	0.3	126.3	13.7	1.6
1957-58	3.1	19.1	0.5	84.7	7.5	0.7
1958-59	6.0	33.2	0.6	125.0	15.0	2.0
1959-60	5.6	32.5	0.3	148.3	9.2	2.1
1960-61	10.9	26.7	0.3	164.3	12.9	1 6
1961-6 2	9.7	11.1	0.4	147.7	15.1	2.1

TABLE—XI

Net Area Under Irrigation (According to Modes of Irrigation)

(In Acres)

Year	Net Area Irrigated by						Percent of Net Area Irrigated to Net Cropped Area
	Canals		Tanks	Wells	Other Sources	Total	
	Govern-ment	Private					
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1915-16	..	..	216	6,632	378	7,226	0.73
1916-17	..	..	344	4,935	299	5,578	0.58
1917-18	..	..	435	7,370	653	8,458	0.99
1918-19	..	..	271	6,181	368	6,820	0.76
1919-20	..	..	500	6,499	379	7,378	0.81
1920-21	..	..	379	7,067	423	7,869	0.86
1921-22	..	..	460	7,515	533	8,508	0.93
1922-23	..	..	552	7,003	455	8,010	0.86
1923-24 — ..	649	—	..	7,320	470	8,433	0.92
1924-25	651	..	..	7,022	434	8,107	0.87
1925-26	885	..	..	6,514	453	7,852	0.86
1926-27 .	1,271			6,826	527	8,624	0.93
1927-28 ..	1,445	..	..	3,096	178	4,719	0.50
1928-29	1,516	..	..	3,601	178	5,295	0.55
1929-30	1,802	..	..	6,392	365	8,559	1.00
1930-31	1,843	..	..	7,231	340	9,414	1.04
1931-32	1,334	..	..	5,884	382	7,600	0.85
1932-33	1,288	..	..	7,976	546	9,810	1.11
1933-34	1,232	..	..	6,719	434	8,385	0.93
1934-35	1,254	..	..	5,018	254	6,526	0.73
1935-36	2,658	..	..	5,140	392	8,190	0.91
1936-37	1,414	..	..	5,165	276	6,855	0.74
1937-38	1,580	..	..	5,951	419	7,950	0.85
1938-39	1,560	..	..	6,209	471	8,240	0.87
1939-40	6,715	..	..	2,671	491	9,877	1.04
1940-41	6,045	..	..	3,205	590	9,480	1.01
1941-42	5,949	..	..	2,373	262	8,584	0.86

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1942-43	4,578	..	..	5,846	516	10,940	1.14
1943-44	5,126	..	..	4,607	338	10,071	1.01
1944-45	5,069	..	..	4,103	316	9,488	1.00
1945-46	5,142	..	..	4,376	472	9,990	1.00
1946-47	5,195	..	..	2,332	233	7,760	0.83
1947-48	5,735	..	..	3,703	281	9,719	1.09
1948-49	6,251	..	..	2,391	210	8,852	0.96
1949-50	3,193	..	360	6,997	282	10,832	1.16
1950-51	3,215	..	389	7,452	392	11,448	1.20
1951-52	2,486	..	927	8,749	714	12,876	1.31
1952-53	3,471	..	357	8,896	803	13,527	1.35
1953-54	3,414	..	138	9,705	804	14,061	1.33
1954-55	3,674	..	203	8,282	442	12,601	1.16
1955-56	3,777	..	337	8,526	480	13,120	1.21
1956-57	4,116	..	486	6,594	242	11,438	1.05
1957-58	3,950	..	454	7,914	767	13,085	1.37
1958-59	2,988	..	413	9,310	390	13,101	1.36
1959-60	4,248	..	455	9,475	512	14,690	1.52
1960-61	4,301	..	325	9,281	585	14,492	1.48
1961-62	4,547	..	436	8,606	624	14.213	1.45

Note :—Area irrigated by tanks from 1923-24 to 1940- 49 is not available separately and area in Column 2 includes the area irrigated by canals and tanks both.

TABLE—XII

Agricultural Machinery and Implements

Year	Ploughs		Carts	Sugarcane Crushers		Oil Engines	Electric Pumps	Tractors	Ghanis with Crushing Capacity	
	Wooden	Iron		Power	Bullocks				Less than Five Seers	Five Seers or More
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1956-57 ..	90,327	41	44,974	11	128	94	27	108	695	114
1957-58 ..	89,612	51	46,172	23	131	82	24	112	461	74
1958-59 ..	91,017	32	46,402	16	150	141	30	102	448	..
1959-60 ..	94,092	..	48,881	..	109	134	39	108	328	..
1960-61 ..	98,760	118	51,812	7	157	178	63	169	407	18
1961-62 ..	N.R.	N,R.	51,494	..	121	259	77	162	N.R.	N.R.

TABLE—XIII

Tahsil-wise Agricultural Machinery and Implements

Tehsils	Wooden Ploughs	Iron Ploughs	Carts	Sugarcane Crushers Worked by		Oil Engines with Pumps for Irrigation Purposes	Oil Engines for Other Purposes	Persian Wheels	Electric Pumps for Irrigation Purposes	Motes	Tractors		Ghanis	
				Power	Bullocks						Government	Private	Five Seers and over	Less than Five Seers
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
1956														
Sagar	23,533	32	14,487	8	84	88	46	394	1,977	21	20	13	3	173
Khurai	26,847	17	11,326	..	..	5	2	14	162	..	9	62	13	80
Rehli	20,110	28	13,302	..	93	16	18	280	726	4	11	3	10	226
Banda	14,596	1	6,172	..	13	10	7	792	575	..	..	2	6	200
Total district ..	64,287	78	45,287	8	190	119	73	1,480	3,440	25	40	80	32	679
1961														
Sagar — ..	26,293	29	15,372	1	54	98	86	252	1,912	41	3	21	..	105
Khurai	29,631	34	13,645	5	6	16	23	6	142	9	4	125	6	30
Relhi — ..	25,202	34	14,947	..	78	40	44	409	868	13	7	2	9	182
Banda	17,694	21	7,848	1	19	24	9	993	565	..	..	7	3	90
Total district ..	98,760	118	51,812	7	157	178	162	1,660	3,487	63	14	155	18	407

TABLE—XIV

Livestock and Poultry Population

Tahsil	Cattle	Buffaloes	Sheep	Goats	Horses and Ponies	Mules	Donkeys	Camels	Pigs	Total Live-stock	Fowls	Ducks	Others	Total Poultry
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
1956														
Sagar	1,95,147	35,648	3,678	19,070	1,890	20	299	23	2,004	2,57,779	6,888	19	31	6,938
Khurai	1,70,156	25,411	3,538	9,449	1,471	9	277	2	666	2,10,997	5,020	40	20	5,080
Rehli	1,75,494	34,703	2,360	14,617	1,753	1	167	..	1,339	2,30,434	3,609	..	23	3,632
Banda	1,04,336	27,843	2,193	14,480	811	..	131		1,453	1,51,237	2,242	..	1	2,243
Total district	6,45,133	1,23,605	11,759	57,616	5,925	30	874	25	5,462	8,50,429	17,759	59	75	17,893
1961														
Sagar	2,02,636	36,152	8,358	21,801	1,456	25	250	18	1,151	2,71,847	7,470	29	72	7,571
Khurai	1,67,847	26,639	7,023	11,705	1,007	13	241	19	414	2,14,908	6,366	26	74	6,466
Rehli	1,95,566	37,572	1,835	13,837	1,232	—	179	..	1,594	2,51,815	5,388	..	33	5,421
Banda	1,10,333	29,086	2,209	13,953	415	..	102	2	870	1,56,970	2,407	2	4	2,413
Total district	6,76,382	1,29,449	19,425	61,296	4,110	38	772	39	4,029	8,95,540	21,631	57	183	21,871

TABLE—XV

Loans Granted from State Funds-Ordinary Taccavi

(In Rs.)

Year	Agriculturists' Loans Act	Land Improvement Loans Act
(1)	(2)	(3)
1900-01	62,257	..
1901-02	67,415	29,940
1902-03	28,634	100
1903-04	17,882	440
1904-05	29,627	36,295
1905-06	82,215	8,168
1906-07	48,131	4,870
1907-08	92,826	54,417
1908-09	90,118	9,825
1909-10	33,727	6,940
1910-11	36,899	5,495
1911-12	20,862	3,346
1912-13	16,822	4,975
1913-14	50,945	39,775
1914-15	25,507	5,420
1915-16	12,325	1,775
1916-17	13,505	855
1917-18	47,919	1,691
1918-19	56,289	50,836
1919-20	53,582	52,287
1920-21	81,050	32,000
1921-22	34,950	17,000
1922-23	40,500	6,800
1923-24	10,100	10,100
1924-25	8,451	3,900
1925-26	8,548	700
1926-27	19,467	4,700
1927-28	2,71,866	1,24,205

(1)	(2)	(3)
1928–29	8,19,272	1,46,196
1929–30	5,13,968	82,200
1930–31	1,95,137	3,400
1931–32	15,397	..
1932–33	4,867	750
1933–34	8,162	800
1934–35	40,173	..
1935–36	488	..
1936–37	1,891	206
1937–38	14,555	..
1938–39	9,069	..
1939–40	..	..
1940–41	2,108	..
1941–42	..	..
1942–43	2,01,518	12,800
1943–44	17,691	..
1944–45	1,03,351	..
1945–46	34,926	600
1946–47	..	..
1947–48	12,34,301	..
1948–49	8,31,774	..
1949–50	3,88,670	13,240
1950–51	3,06,643	1,90,500
1951–52	5,39,398	32,840
1952–53	5,43,383	39,400
1953–54	8,16,869	18,670
1954–55	6,19,743	22,375
1955–56	4,07,055	28,255
1-4-56 to 31-10-56	2,87,420	3,900
1-11-56 to 31-3-57	62,275	18,100
1957–58	2,02,525	51,810
1958–59	3,21,350	30,400
1959–60	1,25,905	53,170

TABLE—XVI

Advances Sanctioned Under Agriculturists' Loans Act—Gro More Food Schemes. (In Rs.)

Year	Paddy Seed	Gram seed	Reserve Wheat Seed	Pilot Wheat Seed	Ground nut Seed	Pototo Seed for Rabi Area	Oil-cake	Sunn-hemp Seed	Ammonium Sulphate	Ammonium Phosphate
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1943–44 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	973	..	..	..
1944–45 ..	..	5,236	..	..	4,385	..	8,496	149	..	..
1945–46 ..	1,729	25,239	..	..	3,267	..	6,878	460	..	..
1946–47 ..	1,638	4,446	..	..	9,538	33,666	1,718	797	377	..
1947–48 ..	1,122	24,484	..	..	..	92,503	2,729	..	2,774	418
1948–49 ..	2,190	14,875	..	..	8,551	60,242	10,830	..	2,538	391
1949-50 ..	2,283	10,186	..	4750	11,161	113,795	12,670	..	5,661	1,587
1950–51 ..	2,919	..	..	..	..	22,928	14,364	..	4,910	2,284
1951–52 ..	3,148	..	3,84,793	972	..	6,720	6,255	..	2,070	661
1952–53 ..	1,991	..	1,386	..	..	..	2,978	..	903	48
1953–54 ..	2,520	..	..	47,097	..	..	159	..	3,110	..
1954–55 ..	1,661	..	..	38,613	..	..	..	..	3,103	..
1955–56 ..	202	..	..	23,583	..	..	..	..	1,499	..
1956–57 ..	262	..	..	28,321	..	..	..	..	276	..
1957–58 ..	..	..	..	91,491	..	..	..	..	2,432	..
1958–59 ..	906	..	..	1,32,423	..	..	..	315	18,867	..
1959–60 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Contd.

Year	Phosphatic Fertilizers	Fertilizer Mixture	Tractors by Private Persons	Pumping Sets	Rahats	Private Tractor Ploughing	Plant Protection Equipment	Loans for Settlement of Landless Labourers
(1)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
1943-44	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1944-45	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	—
1945-46	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1946-47	49	..	..	..	..	..	..	—
1947-48	537	..	..	..	..	..	..	—
1948-49	1,771	..	..	..	4,763	..	..	—
1949-50	503	..	..	..	..	..	..	—
1950-51	1,461	..	51,000	79,400	13,000	..	..	—
1951-52	87	..	53,775	24,500	13,660	11,240	..	—
1952-53	..	..	9,900	15,600	26,400	..	..	—
1953-54	..	2,434	8,500	23,900	7,480	..	..	..
1954-55	..	48	18,950	7,000	8,750	..	..	..
1955-56	..	..		7,900	750	..	..	—
1956-57	..	289	8,500	5,000	3,000	..	..	—
1957-58	322	..	6,000	3,300	3,750	884	..	..
1958-59	5,860	..	29,000	17,300	4,000	900	950	6,800
1959-60	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	—

Contd.

TABLE—XVII

Advances Sanctioned under Land Improvement Loans Act—Grow More Food Schemes

(In Rs.)

Year	Construction of New Wells	Repairs to Old Wells	Construction of New Wells for Extension of Area under Potato	Construction of New Tanks, Repairs to old Tanks and Bunding of Nullahs	Construction of Field Embankments for Do-fasli	Construction of Rabi Embankments	Repairs to Rabi Embankments	Construction of Paddy Bunds	Embankment by Soil Conservation	Tractor Ploughing by Machine Tractor Station
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1943-44 ..	2,650	..	..	..	930	..	..	..	..	..
1944-45 ..	46,000	8,000	..	..	11,222	..	..	..	..	..
1945-46 ..	6,200	12,500	..	..	29,836	..	..	..	..	..
1946-47 ..	56,660	15,655	..	..	51,594	..	..	..	..	..
1947-48 ..	1,08,075	38,220	..	..	24,345	..	..	..	..	..
1948-49 ..	2,98,480	63,560	..	4,000	2,10,359	..	..	..	..	..
1949-50 ..	80,800	14,000	..	10,000	95,490	..	..	..	..	..
1950-51 ..	99,700	2,800	2,29,650	36,200	31,392	..	1,17,852	17,292	..	..
1951-52 ..	13,300	4,700	46,200	5,500	30,335	50,835	23,230	..	..	..
1952-53 ..	29,910	8,080	..	..	5,195	46,760	..	..	1,550	..
1953-54 ..	44,200	6,008	..	3,000	3,880	58,400	..	..	..	985
1954-55 ..	10,260	1,920	..	..	4,700	24,315	..	..	..	..
1955-56 ..	13,620	2,424	..	..	3,340	24,560	..	..	..	..
1956-57 ..	15,470	776	..	..	2,040	10,150	..	..	..	1,54,489
1957-58 ..	2,520	1,320	..	..	5,020	..	..	..	4,640	1,68,803
1958-59 ..	4,400	640	..	..	2,228	..	..	..	..	1,59,607
1959-60 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

TABLE—XVIII

Taccavi Granted Under Community Development/National Extension Service Schemes

(In Rs.)

Year	Amount
(1)	(2)
1954-55	26,150
1955-56	48 238
1956-57	12,610
1957-58	1,46 605
1958-59	3.19,397
1959-60	99,090

TABLE—XIX

Subsidy Granted Under Land Improvement Loans Act and Agriculturists' Loans Act

(In Rs.)

Year	Land Improvement Loans Act			Agriculturist's Loans Act							
	Construction of New Wells and Repairs to Old Wells	Construction of Field Embankments	Construction of New Tanks and Repairs to Old Tanks	Paddy Seed	Superphosphate	Wheat Seed (Pilot)	Sunn Seed	Rahat	Plant Protection Equipment	Fertilizer Mixture	Potato Seed
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1951-52 ..	..	..	..	584	39	..	..	..	..	216	1,680
1952-53 ..	8,450	..	..	3,129	..	..	..	..	..	78	..
1953-54 ..	12,522	..	..	1,288	38	5,593	750	..	..	..	..
1954-55 ..	2,100	..	250	1,231	71	..	..	..	..	3	..
1955-56 ..	3,853	..	..	150	20	4,599	—	..	..	..	..
1956-57 ..	1,260	1,060	..	115	..	3,736	..	..	..	..	..
1957-58 ..	960	1,160	..	..	107	8,624	500	..	..	..	..
1958-59 ..	1,160	743	..	213	1,950	..	105	4,000	750	..	..
1959-60 ..	9,545	1,531	5,097	2,837	3,665	13,149	4,104	1,716	..	..	..

TABLE—XX

Remissions Sanctioned Out of the Taccavi Loans

(In Rs.)

Year	Agriculturists' Loans Act		Land Improvement Loans Act	
	Principal	Interest	Principal	Interest
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1900-01	31,526	..	603	..
1901-02	38,939	6,468	2,335	..
1902-03	1,279	..	22	..
1903-04	117,603	..	8,444	..
1904-05	2,169	..	..	..
1906-07	..	198	..	..
1907-08	1,035	..	228	..
1911-12	..	..	28	..
1912-13	..	..	94	..
1914-15	173	..	171	..
1922-23	305	..	240	..
1923-24	356	..	356	..
1932-33	6,03,672	..	..	..
1934-35	98,416	..	..	..
1935-36	132	..	19,802	..
1936-37	5,362	..	..	..
1937-38	13,717	..	51,924	..
1938-39	2,444	..	175	—
1940-41	16,231	..	..	..
1941-42	12,731	..	536	..
1942-43	3,746	..	..	..
1943-44	7,928	..	..	..
1944-45	1,962	..	..	..
1945-46	4,690	..	65	..
1947-48	144	..	..	..
1950-51	1,452	..	1,395	..
1952-53	15	..	..	..
1957-58 .. — ..	43	..	..	..

TABLE—XXI

Collection of National Defence Fund by 28th February 1963

Items	
(1) Total Collection (In Rs.)	6,68,317
(2) Gold and gold ornaments (In Grams)	5,656
(3) Silver and silver ornaments (In Grams)	44
(4) National Defence Certificates (In Rs.)	3,16,600
(5) Gold Bonds (In Grams)	17,967

TABLE—XXII

Small Savings Scheme

(In Rs.)

Year	Total Deposits in Small Savings		Total Sale of Prize Bonds
	Gross	Net	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1960-61	36,49,694	11,57,508	11,092
1961-62	43,36,757	7,83,642	45,490

LIST OF FAIRS AND MELAS

S. No.	Place where Mela or Fair is held	When held	Local Religious or Other Occasion of the Mela or Fair	Duration of the Mela or Fair (in days)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Khurai Tahsil		
1	Kundree ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Nilkanth Fair	2
2	Bina ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	1
3	Dugaha Kalan ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	3
4	Hinnod Bagaspur	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	1
5	Khimlasa	*Magha Sudi* 5 (January/February). ..	Basant Panchami	10
		Banda Tahsil		
6	Odahe	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	2
7	Jhagi	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	1
8	Singrawah ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) .	Sankrant ..	3
9	Baraitha ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	3
10	Tiguda ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	2
11	Hirapur	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	2
12	Tinsua	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	3
13	Uldan ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	10
14	Jamunia ..	*Magha Sudi* 5(January/Feb.)	Basant Panchami	15
15	Shahgarh ..	*Phalguna Badi* 13 (February/March)	Shivratri ..	3
16	Dhamoni ..	No certain date (May)	Urs Baljitshah ..	6
		Sagar Tahsil		
17	Bidwas	*Chaitra* (March/April) ..	Harsidhi Devi	1
18	Mokalpur ..	*Chaitra* (March/April) ..	Navratri ..	4
19	Garpahra ..	*Asadha* (June/July) ..	Garpahra Fair	4-5
20	Bhapel	*Kartika Sudi* 15 (Oct./Nov.)	Fuler Fair ..	1
21	Sanodha ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	3
22	Mahuna ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	1
23	Khakron ..	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	3
24	Panarl	*Pausa/Magha* (January) ..	Sankrant ..	1

(1)	(2)		(3)	(4)	(5)
25	Karrapur	..	*Magha Sudi* 5(January/Feb.)	Basant Pachami	5
26	Bilhera	..	*Magha Sudi* 5 (Jaunary/Feb.)	Basant Panchami	1
27	Dewal Chouri	..	*Magha Sudi* 5 (January/Feb.)	Basant Panchami	5
28	Mehar ..	..	*Phalguna Badi* 13 (February/ March)	Shivratri .	2
			Rehli Tahsil		
29	Bina ..	..	*Chaitra Sudi* 9(March/April)	Ramnavmi	1
30	Rangir ..	..	*Chaitra Sudi* 7-9(March/April)	Nav Durga ..	3
31	Rehli ..	..	*Asadha* (June/July)	Pandharinath Fair.	1
32	Deori	..	*Agrahyana Sudi* 6 (November December)	Champa Chhat	3
33	Barketi	..	*Pausa/Magha* (January)	Sankrant	3
34	Bina	..	*Pausa* (December/January)	Jain Fair	15
35	Garhakota	(1) (2)	*Magha Sudi* 5 (Jan./Feb.) *Asadha Sudi* 2 (June/July)	Basant Panchami Ratha Yatra	30 1

Source:—District Census Hand Book, Sagar District, 1961.

CONVERSION TABLE

I. Weights.

Table

10 milligrams (mg)	=1 centigram
10 centigrams	=1 decigram
10 decigrams	=1 gram (1 g=1000 mg)
10 grams	=1 dekagram
10 dekagrams	=1 hectogram
10 hectograms	=1 kilogram (1 kg=1000 g).
10 kilograms	=1 myriogram
10 myriograms	=1 quintal
10 quintals	=1 metric tonne (1 tonne=1000 kg)

From old units to new units

1 Tola	=11.66 grams
1 Chhatak	=58.32 grams
1 Seer	=933.10 grams
1 Maund	=37.32 kg.
1 Gram	=0.0648 gram
1 Ounce	=28.35 grams
1 Pound	=453.59 grams
	=0.45 kg.
1 Quarter	=12.706 kg.
1 Handerweight	=50.80 kg.
1 Ton	=1016.05 kg.

From new units to old units—

1 Gram	=0.085735 tola
	=15.4324 grams
	=0.0352740 ounce
1 Kilogram	=1.07169 Seer
	=2.20462 lbs.
1 Quintal	=2.67923 maunds
	=220.46 lbs.
1 Metric tonne	=26.7923 maunds
	= 0.9842 ton

II. Length.

Table

10 millimetres (mm)	=1 centimetre (cm)
10 centimetres	=1 decimetre
10 decimetres	=1 metre (1 m=100 cms=1000 mm).
10 metres	=1 dekametre
10 dekametres	=1 hectometre
10 hectometres	=1 kilometre (1 km=1000 m).

From old units to new units:—

1 inch	=2.54 cms.
	=25.4 mms.
	=0.0254 m.
1 foot	=30.48 cms.
	=0.3048 m.
1 yard	=91.44 cms.
	=0.9144 m.
1 furlong	=201.163 m.
1 mile	=1.609344 km.
	=1609.344 m.
1 chain	=20 1168 m.

From new units to old units:—

1 mm.	=0.0394 inch
1 cm.	=0.393701 inch
1 decimetre	=3.937 inch
1 metre.	=1.09361 yds.
	=3.28084 feet
	=39.3701 inches
	=0.0497097 chain
	=0.00497097 furlong
1 hectometre	=0.062173 mile
1 kilometre (km)	=0.62137 mile

III Capacity

Table.

10 Millilitres (ml.)	=1 centilitre
10 centilitres	=1 decilitre
10 decilitres	=1 litre (1 L=1000 ml.)
10 litres (c)	=1 dekalitre
10 dekalitres	=1 hectolitre
10 hectolitres	=1 kilolitre.

From old units to new units:—

1 ounce	=28 ml. (to the nearest ml.)
1 gill	=142 ml. (to the nearest ml.)
1 pint	=568 ml. (to the nearest ml.)
	=0.56825 L
1 quart	=1 litre and 136 ml. (to the nearest ml.)
	=1.13649 L
1 gallon	=4.54596 L
1 liquid seer	=940 ml. (to the nearest 10 ml.)

From new units to old units:—

1 litre	=1.75980 pints
	=0.87990 quart
	=0.219975 gallon
	=1.1 liquid seer—(Approx)
	=35 liquid ounces (do)
	=1000.028 cubic centimetres.
	=85.735 tolas of pure water
	=61.025 cubic inches.
	=1.000028 cubic decimetres
1 kilolitre	=1 000028 cubic metres

IV Volume

Table

1000 cubic millimetres	=1 cubic centimetre
1000 cubic centimetres	=1 cubic decimetre
1000 cubic decimetres	=1 cubic metre

From old units to new units:—

1 cubic inch	=16 3871 cubic centimetres
1 cubic foot	=28 3168 cubic decimetres
	=28 316 litres
1 cubic yard	=0.76455 cubic metre
1 gallon	=0 00454609 cubic metre
	=4 5196 litres
	=4 54609 cubic decimetres
1 ounce	=28 4132 cubic centimetres
1 gill	=142.066 cubic centimetres
1 pint	=568 2110 cubic centimetres
	=0.56825 litre
1 quarter	=1 1395 litres
1 litre	=1000 028 cubic centimetres
	=1 000028 cubic decimetres

From new units to old units:—

1 cubic centimetre	=0.061024 cubic inch
	=0 0070390 gill
	=0.0351949 ounce
1 cubic decimetre	=0 0353147 cubic foot
	=0 99997 litre

1 cubic metre	=35·315 cubic foot
	=1.30795 cubic yard
	=219.969 gallon
	=0.99997 kilolitre

V Area

Table

100 sq. mm.	=1 sq. cm.
100 sq. cm.	=1 sq. decimetre
100 sq. decimetre	=1 sq. metre (1 sq. m.= 10000 sq. cm.)

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2	21.	2	Delete
17	21.	*salei saleh* or *(Boswellia scerrata)*	*salai* or *saleh (Boswellia serrata)*
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